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A

GENERAL VIEW

OF THE

PRESENT SYSTEM OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

IN

FRANCE, &c.

OLIVER & BOYD, PRINTERS.

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GENERAL VIEW

OF THE

PRESENT SYSTEM OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

IN

FRANCE,

AND OF THE

LAWS, REGULATIONS, AND COURSES OF STUDY

IN THE

DIFFERENT FACULTIES, COLLEGES, AND INFERIOR SCHOOLS, WHICH NOW COMPOSE

The Royal University of that Kingdom:

PRECEDED BY

A SHORT HISTORY

OF THE

UNIVERSITY OF PARIS BEFORE THE REVOLUTION.

69329

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INTRODUCTION.

THE present appointment of a Royal Commission to inquire into the state of the Scottish Universities has excited very general attention and interest. The distinguished rank and talents of the individuals who form it,—the vital importance of the duties imposed upon them,—the extended and comprehensive view they are understood to have taken of the subject,—all give good earnest that the result of their labours will prove highly beneficial to the cause of science and education. At such a time, a short history of the University of Paris, with some account of the various enactments now in force for regulating and arranging the courses

of study in the higher faculties, as well as in the inferior schools, since its new organization, may not be uninteresting.

Destroyed, like many other useful institutions, at the period of the Revolution, it was some time before the establishments of public instruction in France were again placed upon a proper footing. But as the reign of anarchy passed away, and the government became consolidated, the institutions of the country acquired a more stable form and existence, and a new and comprehensive system of general education was organized. This, in many of its essential features, is deserving of very high commendation, and presents a most interesting subject of consideration from the nature of its constitution, which resembles in so very few points what it was previous to the Revolution, and is perhaps in general so little known in this country.

The different schools of France are no longer independent of each other, and no longer possess the right of framing their own laws and statutes; they are now all dependant upon the

same power, regulated by the same laws, and subject to the same supreme jurisdiction.

The plan adopted in the following pages gives a short detail of the early rise and after progress of the University of Paris before its suppression; then a sketch of the temporary systems that succeeded it; and, finally, an account of the Royal University of France; and it has been the object to make this as concise as is consistent with perspicuity and distinctness. Perhaps not the least interesting part of the whole may be that which treats of the courses of study required for obtaining the higher degrees of academic honours in the learned professions, and the preparatory courses of liberal elementary education, which are imperative upon young men before they can be permitted to enter upon the prosecution of these professions.

The University of France presents a system of instruction very complete in all its parts. The progression followed in the distribution of the various branches of literature; the excellent

arrangement of the inferior schools, which leaves little to desire on the head of elementary education; and the absolute necessity of completing a thorough preliminary course of philosophical and general study before entering the faculties, merit great and deserved admiration. At a period then, when inquiries are said to be making into the present state of science and literature in this country, not only in their deeper, but also in their more elementary branches, the constitution of the University of France, differing so much as it does from that of the Scottish Universities, may be studied with advantage, and may afford hints for improvement in many points connected with the system of education in Scotland.

The short account contained in the following pages forms part of a more extensive work intended for publication, in which it is meant to give a particular view of institutions and establishments connected with general continental literature and education. At the present time however, imperfect as it is, it may

not be found without interest as a separate work; and, in thus giving it to the public, it may be added, that nothing has been advanced that is not founded upon official documents and personal observation during a residence of considerable length in France.

A CONCISE VIEW

OF THE

PRESENT SYSTEM

OF

EDUCATION IN FRANCE, &c.

THE early history of the University of Paris is involved in much obscurity. Its foundation goes back to very remote antiquity; but the precise epoch of its establishment as a school cannot well be ascertained. When we consider the barbarous state of letters in the early ages of the French monarchy, and the characters of the princes who then governed France, we cannot hope to find traces of any establishment dedicated to the promotion of the sciences, or to the instruction of those who might wish to advance in the career of literature.

Some of the early French monarchs, however, there is reason to believe, had in their own palaces seminaries for the education of the young nobility of their court; but it is to the reign of Charlemagne that we must refer the foundation of what has since become the University of France. The great partiality of that Emperor for theology, induced him to pay more attention to it than to the other sciences, which at first were much neglected in the school of Paris; for though, in one of his edicts, dated 805, there is to be found an order to send pupils to study medicine, yet that science was hardly known, and it is not till three centuries after him, that its progress can be traced, and its improvement observed. More enlightened than his predecessors, this monarch did not confine the benefits of education to the nobility, but admitted, with equal facility, and under every encouragement, youth of the inferior walks of life.* At the close of the ninth century, Rémi, a monk of Auxerre, was very in-

* Duboullai Hist. Univers. Paris, vol. ii. p. 572.

strumental in keeping up the character which the school had already acquired under Charlemagne. His numerous disciples, inspired with the enthusiasm of their master, laboured for its advancement and prosperity, and formed other teachers, whose descendants flourished in the twelfth century, the period at which the University first obtained those numerous and powerful privileges that have contributed so much to its celebrity. If, therefore, the University did not exist in an incorporated form before this time, a succession of teachers can be traced back to the age of Charlemagne, and a gradual improvement can be observed in its institutions down to the epoch when it received those favours from its sovereigns and the church, which have since rendered it so important a body.

It was under William de Champeaux en Brie that the great fame of the Parisian school first commenced. Before this period, besides the limited extent of the privileges it possessed, its reputation was obscured by the existence of other schools, especially those of Rheims and

Chartres,* which, from the celebrity of their teachers, were very much frequented. But as the city of Paris rose in importance, the school rose with it; while other institutions, whose renown depended solely on the fame of their professors, gradually, as they died, sunk into insignificance. The celebrity of its teachers and the number of its students now increased so rapidly, that it was found necessary to establish some sort of government in the University, in order to keep up the regularity and obedience requisite to its welfare; and for this reason, towards the close of the twelfth century, it was incorporated into a society. † The studies were now carried on in a more regular and systematic manner, and, instead of theology and the arts being the sole objects of interest, medicine began to assume the form of a science.

The principal privileges possessed by the University were granted by Louis VII., and his son Philip Augustus. These privileges were so great

* Crevier, vol. i. p. 2. † Duboullai, vol. ii. p. 491.

as almost to encroach on those of the monarch, and to give it an existence entirely independent of the state. By an *ordonnance* of Philip Augustus, it was exempted from the royal jurisdiction, and both the judges and citizens were exhorted to aid in keeping its rights untouched. It was also permitted to choose its own authorities, and to administer justice for itself. In very particular cases only could the judicial authorities of the city interfere with the students, and even then the judge was obliged to deliver over the culprit, as soon as possible, to the spiritual arm.

The person of the rector was almost sacred, and the *Prevot* of the city was forced to take an oath to the University,—a ceremony which, though afterwards permitted to fall into disuse, was never abrogated, and continued in force for a very long period: the last *Prevot* that took the oath was M. de Villeroi, in 1592.*

The great privileges granted by Philip Augustus had their origin in the following cir-

* Crevier, vol. i. p. 281.

cumstance:—The servant of a member of the University having gone to fetch some wine for his master, got into some dispute in the *cabaret*, was beaten, and the vessel he carried broken. Enraged at this insult, a party of students repaired to the house, and maltreated the landlord in such a manner as to leave him almost dead. The citizens now became in their turn enraged, and having armed themselves, they surrounded the house into which the students had retired, and put several of them to death. The heads of the University upon this instantly repaired to the king and demanded redress: The king, dreading that they might quit Paris if this was refused, readily promised them what they demanded; the persons accused were punished in the severest manner, and to prevent any such accident in future, the privileges already mentioned were granted.*

At a very early period of their history Universities were divided into what were termed nations, and Paris, as the resort of strangers

* Duboullai.

from all parts of Europe, was one of the first that adopted this arrangement. Duboullai defines a nation "*Corpus seu sodalitium aliquod magistrorum omnes artes indiscriminatim profitentium, in eadem matricula conscriptorum et sub eisdem legibus institutis præfectisque viventium.*"* This definition is rather too limited. A nation was composed of persons of the same country or tract of country, who, whatever might be the nature of their studies or pursuits, joined in forming a body, passing laws, regulations, and archives peculiar to themselves, governed by authorities eligible by themselves alone, and occupying buildings and pursuing a mode of life confined to their own company. With the other companies they had no connexion, except when they were convened to form the great council of the University. The members of these nations or provinces, as they were sometimes entitled, varied in different schools, according as the resort of foreigners was

* I. 250.

more or less considerable. To what epoch the rise of this system can with certainty be traced it is not easy to say, but Duboullai is inclined to carry it back as far as the reign of Charlemagne. The first nations that were established he considers to have been the French and English; to which were added, towards the commencement of the tenth century, the Picard and Norman; but the greater proportion of writers deny their origin to be so remote, and refer it to the reigns of Louis VII., and Philip Augustus, when the term nation occurs in many official papers relating to the affairs of the University. Though they may not have existed so early as some would argue, yet undoubtedly they did exist before the thirteenth century; for at the period when Henry II. of England was engaged in his contest with St Thomas à Becket, he offered to refer the adjustment of it to the judgment of the peers of France, the Gallican church, or the heads of the different provinces of the University of Paris. The term provinces here evidently re-

fers to the institution of nations. The date of this fact is 1169.*

At the close of the twelfth, and beginning of the thirteenth centuries then, the existence of this division into nations seems indisputable; the composition and number of each varied much, depending upon circumstances connected with the political state of the countries from which their members came. The four nations were those of France, England, Picardy, and Normandy. The first included, besides the French, also Italians, Spaniards, Greeks, and Orientals; the English included Scotch, Irish, Poles, Germans, and all other northern students. It was the nation in which there were most dispute and bloodshed, as the two most powerful tribes, the English and Germans, were always struggling for supremacy.

The following is the order in which the na-

* Vide Bulæum, Mathew Paris, et Meiners, v. i. p. 14. The precise words of the two first authors are, *et scholaribus diversarum provinciarum æqua lance negotium examinantibus,*—of course the word *scholqribus,* as was the custom in these times, applies to teachers as well as scholars.

tions stood, and in which they gave their votes: France, Picardy, Normandy, and England. Each nation was divided into provinces, and each province, farther, into dioceses. The names of the members of each province were enrolled in an inscription-book, and at their head had a Dean chosen by themselves. The Deans of the provinces formed the ordinary council of the procurator or head of the nation, and their agreement was necessary in every undertaking of importance.

Amongst the greatest privileges the nations possessed, was that of making, altering, or annulling their own statutes. About the commencement of the seventeenth century, it came to be a matter of dispute, if a nation had the right of binding its own members by statutes, contrary to or at variance with the statutes of the University? The English, (at that period named the German), the Picard, and Norman nations all agreed in the affirmative; but the procurator of the French nation, with the deans of the higher faculties, was of the contrary opinion, and insisted that no company had the

right of making a law at variance with a University statute.

It was the prerogative of each nation to choose its own office-bearers, the highest of whom was the Procurator, who was to the nation what the Rector was to the whole University; his duties were to defend the rights and privileges of the nation, call its meetings, collect its votes, swear in new office-bearers and new members; to keep the inscription-books and seal of the nation, and see that all the acts were properly attended to, and that the statutes were duly observed. With the other Procurators, he constituted the ordinary council of the Rector, and formed one of the great council, composed of Rector, Procurator, and Deans. Each nation had its own patron, church, place of meeting, academic buildings, great and small seal, archives, and treasury. Its revenues consisted of inscription-money, dues paid by office-bearers and graduates, and fines for infringement of statutes; and as the revenues of course increased with the number of students, it became a frequent matter of dispute to what na-

tion a new member belonged. Each nation then was an independent body, and composed, with the other nations, the great council. The Procurators chose the Rector, were his ordinary advisers, and held regular meetings with him, in conjunction with the Deans of the higher Faculties, when they were established, to consider of the affairs of the University.

The origin of Faculties has, like that of nations, been disputed, but not with so much reason. The existence of Faculties, in the sense in which the name is now taken, arose from the dislike entertained by the University to incorporate into its body, which was constitutionally and essentially secular, the regular order of monks who had early established themselves in Paris. In the year 1229, when, from particular circumstances, lessons were suspended in the University, the Dominican friars, taking advantage of the cessation, instituted a chair of Theology, under pretence of preventing literature and science from falling altogether into decay. They were strenuously supported by the Bishop of Paris, and his Chancellor, and their

example was soon followed by the Franciscan friars. The University at once perceiving the mischief that was likely to happen, used its most anxious endeavours to keep down the Mendicant monks. Both parties applied to the head of the church; and the dispute, which lasted from 1243 to 1257, ended in the latter coming off in great measure victorious, and in the former giving up many of its privileges. The Dominicans and Franciscans desired the right of establishing teachers in their own cloisters, who should be accounted members of the University, and whose degrees should be deemed equivalent to those of the University. The Rector and nations firmly refused to allow this claim, but the monks were favoured by Popes Innocent IV. and Alexander IV., who not only supported their pretensions, but, finding the University resolute, issued bulls, ordering it, on pain of being placed under the bann of the church, to take them into its body, and grant them the same rights as its other members. The heads of the University endeavoured, but in vain, to elude this injunction, while the

monks and the Pope persisted in their demands; and at last, to prevent the destruction of the school, the assembled Doctors and Masters, in 1259, came to the determination, that they should acknowledge the masters and scholars of the Mendicant orders, but at the same time assign them the last place in processions, disputations, and promotions. In this way, they conceived, that while they submitted to the Pope's will, they had so done it as to disgust the friars, without giving them the right of complaint; the friars, however, neither complained nor retired in disgust, but, combining with the secular teachers of Theology, who had long been favourable to them, formed a separate body or Theological Faculty, at the head of which they placed a Dean, as the nations had Procurators. Thus the first Faculty was formed, and had a distinct existence from the nations. Faculties of Medicine and Canon Law very soon modelled themselves upon that of Theology. As early as 1270, it is proved, that the Faculty of Medicine had punished a member for contravening one of its statutes, and in the following year

the Faculty of Laws possessed a seal similar to that of the nations.

The three Faculties are distinctly mentioned in a deliberation, in the year 1277, and four years afterwards they were confirmed in all the rights and privileges of the University. From this period, therefore, the school of Paris, which had hitherto consisted of four bodies, was composed of seven, namely, of four nations and three Faculties, represented respectively by four Procurators and three Deans. It now took the name of the *New University.*

The four nations began at this time to be named the Faculty of Arts, and were much curtailed in their privileges. As all who were not Doctors in the superior Faculties belonged to the Faculty of Arts, it followed, that when the former conferred a degree, it was upon a member of the latter, who, of course, was from that time not only lost to the nations, but converted into a rival and antagonist. A Faculty has been defined by Duboullai—*Corpus et Sodalitium plurimorum magistrorum, certæ alicui disciplinæ addictorum, sine ulla distinctione natio-*

nis. The Faculties very soon began to consolidate themselves, and form laws and regulations like other companies; they had the same right as the four nations of choosing office-bearers, and of making statutes, and they were not long in taking advantage of these rights; their heads were named Deans, and in the Faculties of Law and Medicine there were two Deans, one ordinary, and elected annually, the other honorary. The duties of the Dean in his Faculty were the same as those of the Rector in the University, and of the Procurator in his nation. Before the formation of Faculties, the nations evidently possessed the right and the sole right of electing the Rector; but, after this, their right to do so was disputed, or at least divided, the Faculties had then each a vote in the nomination; but as their members only amounted to three, it happened that in most cases, when the nations were agreed amongst themselves, they still carried the nomination, as well as many other important questions, which at times were brought forward. But it did not always happen that they were in unison with one another,

and very frequently, by their disputes they gave the Faculties the advantage. In the election of Rector, differences were by no means uncommon. In 1249, the English, Picard, and Norman nations separated from the French, and in 1272, the Norman nation, and several Masters from the others, separated and chose their own Rector. In order to prevent occurrences of a like nature, an attempt was made to form a law similar to that for regulating the election of the Pope.

It was always the custom to give each nation and Faculty a particular honorary term, which it retained in all acts and statutes. What these were may be seen by the following list of Deans and Procurators :—

J. Mullot Decan. *Sacræ* Facultatis Theologiæ.
Ph. De Buisine Decan. *Consultissimæ* Fac. jur. Canon.
Guido Patin Decan. *Saluberrimæ* Fac. Medicine.
J. Doge, *Honorandæ* Nationis Gallicæ Procurator.
G. de Lestoc, *Fidelissimæ* nat. Picard. Procurator.
Th. le Petit. *Venerandæ* nat. Normand, Procurator.
MacNamara, *Constantissimæ* nat. German. Procurator.

There long subsisted a jealousy between the nations and Faculties, and nothing tended to

keep up this on the side of the latter more than the circumstance of the former possessing four voices in the University councils. The utmost endeavours were used to reduce them to one, and to form four votes in all, corresponding to the four Faculties; but the nations constantly and successfully withstood this attempted encroachment on their privileges; for down to the eighteenth century they kept up a prerogative as ancient as it was honourable, and thus sustained a rank in the affairs of the school that would otherwise soon have fallen.

In the earlier periods of the history of the University of Paris, the lives and conduct of the students were extremely turbulent and dissipated. Though this happens more or less in all towns, where a number of young men are collected together, and freed from the restraints of servitude and dependance, yet, from a want of proper attention, it was carried to a height in Paris perfectly incompatible at once with the comfort of the citizens and with the progress of science. Gradually, however, as the government of the University became fixed on

a firmer basis, and as a greater degree of order and regularity was introduced into the management of its affairs, the evils of this uncurbed licentiousness became more apparent, and attempts were made to remedy them, and to prevent a course of life so utterly at variance with real improvement. The greater number of students were boarded in the town, and, in order to prevent the impositions of the citizens, the price of lodging was always regulated by a commission, composed of two members of the University and two of the townsmen. But, as in those times many students were utterly unable to defray the expense of living in this manner, it became a work of charity to construct buildings where they might be lodged in considerable numbers, free of expense and under the eye of a superior, whose business it should be to watch over their moral conduct, and train them to habits of industry and study. At first, established on a very small scale, these institutions led to the foundation of those colleges that afterwards formed one of the most important and essential branches of the University.

It is not easy to say when colleges were first founded; much confusion prevails upon the subject, and it is difficult to discover, whether the many public institutions established at early periods of history were intended as endowments for poor students or for religious associations, or as hospitals for the sick. According to Duboullai,* colleges may be dated as far back as the University itself. The two earliest, of which, however, the precise destination is still doubtful, were established in the twelfth century; the one named St Thomas du Louvre, was founded by Robert Count of Dreux, son of Louis le Gros, under the protection of St Thomas of Canterbury. In it poor students were supported gratis, and the King distributed alms; to which custom may be traced the origin of Bursaries. The other college was founded on the Mont St Genevieve as a *hospice* for Danish students.† Its destination was afterward changed.

These colleges were not schools, as in the

* II. 463, 467. † Duboullai, I. 156.

present day, but merely public dwellings for students, who were conducted by their governors to the public lectures. According to Meiners, the first college, of which the destination is undoubted, was founded by an Englishman, first physician to King Philip of France, about the commencement of the thirteenth century. It was instituted originally for poor students; but its destination was changed, upon the arrival of the Dominican Friars in Paris, in 1217, who, by solicitation, obtained a gift of it for their own use. As this college had been dedicated to St James, the Dominicans, upon gaining the possession of it, in 1218, were named Jacobite Friars; and it is an interesting fact, that the formidable political body of the Jacobins derives its name from the same source.* The monks of this order enjoyed great celebrity for a considerable period, and the number of novices they attracted was enormous. Indeed so far did they carry the system of luring students into their body, that the University, as well as the

* M. Paris. Duboullai, III 92, 93. Meiners, I. 111.

Franciscan monks, made a formal complaint on the subject to the court of the Vatican. This called forth a severe bull from Pope Innocent the Fourth. Succeeding Popes vied with each other in extending the privileges of the mendicant orders, whose fame rose with the celebrity of their teachers; Theology and Philosophy were publicly taught by them; and that they must have successfully taught, is sufficiently indicated by the names of Albertus Magnus, Alexander Hales, Thomas d'Acquin, and Bonaventura. Scholars and novices flocked to them from all countries, so great was their renown; and the humility of the Mendicant friars was soon lost, or at least hid in the splendour of their celebrity. Encouraged by their success, other orders came forward; the Cistercian and Bernardine monks founded colleges, and soon usurped part of their prosperity. The colleges differed at first from the others, in being not entirely gratis; but as their wealth increased, this distinction was removed, and the scholars were received entirely free of expense.

Evidently adopting the models given him by

these religious orders, Robert of Sorbonne, confessor of St Louis, in 1250, laid the foundation of a college, which obtained, from the name of its founder, the title of College of the Sorbonne, and which was the first instituted for secular students of Theology, as would appear from an expression contained in a decree of Louis, its great benefactor, which designates it as an establishment *ad opus congregationis pauperum magistrorum Parisiis in Theologia studentium.**

Such was the origin of the famous college of the Sorbonne, so well known in after ages all over Europe for its learning and bigotry, its crimes and follies. "No other learned body, previous to the time when the Jesuits acquired their ascendancy, held so powerful an influence over the University, the parliament, the court, and the people, and none ever abused that influence more to the disgrace of science and re-

* Bulæus III. 223, et seq. It would appear from Meiners, that at this period preliminary education was attended to; for he says, that no one was allowed to enter upon the study of Theology who had not completed his course of Philosophy, and obtained a degree of *Master*.

ligion, and to the injury of the state. Under Charles VII., Henry III., and Henry IV., the Sorbonne was in a state of open rebellion against the lawful government of France; and, whilst for so long a period it was preaching and practising sedition, it persecuted all who laboured in the promotion of science and religion, and opposed itself with the utmost rancour and violence of bigotry to improvements in either. This is a severe, but not overcharged picture. Deeming every one beyond their walls unworthy of consideration, and denouncing every improvement in knowledge as heresy, because it touched their own character for infallibility, the doctors of the Sorbonne came in the end to raise up to themselves a host of enemies, and they finally sank into the contempt which their illiberal and intemperate behaviour so fully merited.*

During the course of the fourteenth century many new colleges were founded, the

* Meiners Geschichte der hohen Schulen, &c. I. 121. L'Abbe Duvernet hist. de la Sorbonne.

most celebrated of which were those of Navarre and Plessis. The former was the first royal college instituted in Paris; the latter was founded by Geoffroi du Plessis, apostolical secretary to Philip V., in 1326. It contained 40 bursaries; 20 for the arts, 10 for philosophy and the natural sciences, and 10 for theology, or canon law.* It was united to the Sorbonne in 1646.†

The college of Navarre was founded in the year 1304 by Joan of France, with the concurrence of Philip the Fair and his eldest son Louis. It was endowed with funds to maintain 20 poor students of grammar, who received each 4 sous a week; 30 of philosophy, who received 6 sous; and 20 of theology, who received 8 sous: Grammar and philosophy were taught in it, as being reckoned essential to the study of Theology; but law and medicine were excluded, and rendered incompatible with holding a bursary. Each division of the college had a teacher, and the teacher of Divinity was

* Duboullai, IV. 191. † Crevier, II. 273.

at the same time Rector or Principal, and was chosen by the Theological Faculty of the University, which had also the right of making a yearly visit, and of inquiring into the expenditure of the house and the behaviour of the inmates. An hospital and every other convenience and comfort were attached to the college; its affairs were conducted with an admirable regularity, and the whole service of the establishment was carried on so as to render it a model for colleges that were subsequently founded. After the death of the founder, the Bishop of Melun, the Chancellor of Paris, the Dean of the Faculty of Theology, and the Professor of Divinity in the College, were appointed Governors.* Little change was made in its internal economy; one or two additional teachers merely were appointed, and the term of enjoyment of a bursary fixed. If a student did not obtain a mastership or licence before a certain period he lost his place.

But whilst the college of Navarre was so well

* Meiners Geschichte der hohen Schulen, &c. I. 125.

managed, the same was not the case with the other colleges. Their affairs were so ill conducted, that, to prevent their total ruin, the University found it necessary to make a visitation, and the footing on which this should take place became a subject of considerable argument in the University itself,* as the nations could not agree upon the point, whether or not each had the exclusive right of reforming the colleges belonging to it. It has already been mentioned, that colleges were originally designed for the support and instruction of young students who had not the means of defraying their own expences. In the course of time this destination was altered, and they came more nearly to resemble the colleges of the present day; that is, they took in pensioners, who, for a certain sum, were boarded, lodged, and instructed in particular branches of knowledge; besides which, students, who did not dwell in the college, were at liberty to attend the lectures delivered in it. Colleges were now divid-

* Meiners, I. 136.

ed into great and small. In the former, which, in the reign of Louis XI., amounted to 18 in number, Grammar and Rhetoric, Philosophy and Theology, were taught; in the latter, only Grammar and Rhetoric. Many colleges were founded in succeeding reigns; and in 1530 Royal Professors were established in the University for the first time by Francis the First, whose love of languages led him to wish more particular attention paid to their cultivation. The Professors were paid by him, and gave lectures gratis; but, from the troubles that attended his reign, this institution was not carried so far as he intended: and, from the expensive wars in which he was engaged, he was unable to establish it as a particular or separate college. The lectures, therefore, which at first were upon the Greek and Hebrew languages, were delivered in one of the unoccupied buildings of the University. Henry II. assigned separate apartments for this establishment, Henry IV. was prevented by death from doing what he intended, and it was Louis XIII. who had the honour of building the College Royal de France.

Not only were languages now taught, but science in general was cultivated in this college; and Duvernet, in his history of the Sorbonne, says that its foundation was the epoch of the revival of the learned languages, and of the culture of the *Belles Lettres.* The instruction delivered in it being more generally directed to the public good, rendered the *College Royal* more useful, and ensured it a more permanent existence than the Sorbonne. On the first establishment of this institution by Francis,* an attempt was made to induce the celebrated Erasmus to accept the charge of it;† which he declined upon the plea of ill health and advancing age.‡

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* Duboullai, VI. 93. 99. 221, 222.

† Crevier, V. 237, et seq.

‡ Memoire Hist. et Lit. sur le College Royal de France, Paris, 1758. I. p. 59. Duvernet Hist. de la Sorbonne, I. 233. This college exists in the present day in the full possession of all its celebrity. It does not form one of the Royal Colleges belonging to the Academy of Paris; it is of a much higher class, and differs from them in many respects, both as to its constitution, organization, and courses of study. It was founded in the year 1530 by Francis the First, who elected twelve Professors to teach Greek, He-

The establishment of colleges in Paris was a great advantage not only to students in parti-

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brew, Eloquence, Philosophy, Mathematics, and Medicine; other chairs were afterwards formed. In the year 1774, it was organized upon the footing it is at present, with the exception of two additional professorships, founded by Louis XVIII. for the Sanscrit and Chinese languages. The Professors are named by the King, and under the authority of the Minister of the Interior. The lectures are upon the following subjects:—

Astronomy,
Mathematics,
Mathematical Physics,
Experimental Physics,
Medicine,
Anatomy,
Chemistry,
Natural History,
Law of Nature and of Nations,
History and Morals,
Hebrew, Chaldaic, and Syrian Languages,
Arabic Language,
Turkish Language,
Persian Language,
Language and Literature of the Chinese and Tartars,
Sanscrit Language and Literature,
Greek Language and Literature,
Greek Language and Philosophy,
Latin Eloquence,
Poetry,
French Literature.

cular, but to the existence and prosperity of the University itself. The students were no longer so much exposed to the seductions of idleness and dissipation; and those who were inclined to industrious habits, could find a place, where, in a species of retirement, they might prosecute their studies with zeal and without interruption. At the same time the University itself was upheld by the colleges, and obtained from them a degree of stability, without which it must have given way during the frequent disputes with which the country and the city were distracted.

This great and important body, the focus of science and learning, to which students crowded from every part of the civilized world, varied much in the degree of celebrity it enjoyed at different epochs of its history. During times when the kingdom and capital were torn by foreign wars and domestic broils, when the Monarch, instead of being able to aid its progress, found occupation enough in defending his own rights against rebellious subjects, it is very easy to conceive that the University must

have suffered. One great cause of the prosperity which it enjoyed was the nature of its constitution, which was essentially secular; the regular orders which it was forced to admit into its body having always been received under considerable restrictions. The benefits accruing from this system are evident; the regular clergy, tied down and subservient to a particular body unconnected with the University, had two different interests to manage, which must have frequently clashed with each other; and the general interest of the University being the feeblest, could not fail to give way before the particular interest of the religious class to which they belonged. The secular clergy, on the contrary, free from every tie but those of religion and their country, had no object to divide or distract their attention from the interests or common good of the institution to which they were attached.* But though foreign and domestic wars might have influenced this prosperous state of the University, a great portion

* Crevier, I. 5.

of its misfortunes arose from its own body; the licentious manners of the students, their constant brawls with the citizens, and their frequent dissensions among themselves, were so many causes of disturbance, which forced the government at times to adopt measures of coercion, to put down a spirit that was in danger of being carried so far as to injure the royal prerogative and the comforts of the citizens. The first quarrel, that nearly caused the destruction of the University and total dispersion of those who attended it, was this :—Some students had been drinking in one of the suburbs of Paris; heated with wine, they quarrelled with their host; words were soon followed by blows, and for the time the students were repulsed. Returning to Paris, they strengthened their numbers, and having armed themselves, proceeded once more to the house of the wine-dealer, and slew or put to flight the inmates. Not content with this vengeance, they fell upon many of the unoffending neighbours, and maltreated them in such a manner that some were left for dead. The city-authorities instantly repaired

to the Bishop of Paris, and to the Pope's Legate, who was then in the capital; these two churchmen hastened to the Queen, represented to her the outrage, and entreated her not to let it go unpunished. Queen Blanche, then Regent of the kingdom, gave instant orders to the city-officers and a troop of mercenaries to seize without distinction all persons implicated in the disturbance. They hastened to put her command into execution, and encountered before the town a crowd of students engaged in games of amusement, and quite innocent of the outrage committed by their comrades. Without taking time to consider whether they were the guilty persons, the adherents of the Queen attacked them, wounded many of their number, and killed two priests, the one a Fleming, the other a Norman. No sooner was the mischief known, than the Doctors and Masters of the University hastened to the Queen and the Pope's Legate with demands of satisfaction. The Queen refused to listen to them, and approved highly of what had been done. Upon receiving so ungracious an answer, the greater num-

ber both of Masters and scholars proceeded to quit Paris, and spread themselves over other countries. The Bishop and Pope's Legate issued bulls of excommunication against all who did not return to Paris; but Pope Gregory IX. annulled these bulls, and wrote himself to the King, Queen, and many of the clergy, recommending an adjustment of differences, and a peaceable understanding between the government and the students. St Louis, grieved at the evil which the hasty conduct of the Queen had caused, and anxious to restore to his capital the celebrity it had lost by the dispersion of the school, used all his endeavours to fulfil the Pope's wishes, but it was some time before they were crowned with success; and those that did return, did it only upon the pledge of receiving full satisfaction. As the Bishop of Paris and his Chancellor were the most active agents in this affair, the Pope satisfied the aggrieved parties by restricting, in many points, the jurisdiction of those dignitaries over the University,—a point that could not but be very agreeable to that body, as there

always existed a great feeling of jealousy of the powers possessed by these church-men, who were inclined to grasp at a universal and despotic management of its affairs.*

For the present then the total ruin of the Parisian school was prevented; still, however, it received a severe blow; for, from being the only seat of learning in France, it was now weakened by the formation of many other schools, which, in the course of a few years, rose to no inconsiderable degree of reputation. The year 1229 must thus be considered as an epoch of very great interest. The masters and students who had left Paris founded independent establishments in Angers, Poitiers, Orleans, Rheims, Toulouse, and many other towns, which, according to the patronage they received from the Popes or French Kings, obtained at a later or earlier period the titles and privileges of Universities. At this time also, King Henry II. of England, anxious to benefit as far as he could his own subjects, held forth such induce-

* Meiners, I. 213.

ments as caused many of the most celebrated teachers to repair to that country. By an express edict, he granted to all who should settle in an English University, privileges of the highest order; and there is no doubt, that the first dawn of the celebrity since enjoyed by the schools of Oxford and Cambridge had its rise in this partial degradation and dispersion of the University of Paris.

At the commencement of the thirteenth century, and before this unfortunate occurrence, the University was in the most flourishing condition; the number of students that crowded to it from all quarters of Europe was quite unexampled; to give any precise idea of what the number might have been at its greatest height is almost impossible, from the confusion and exaggeration prevailing in different works upon the subject; but that it was very considerable we may infer from the bustle in the city by the presence of the students, and the subsequent comparative state of desertion in which it is said to have remained when they quitted it, although we may not give credit to those authors

who would make the calculation amount to ten, twenty, or thirty thousand.*

But after the dispute with Queen Blanche, the Parisian school no longer occupied the same rank. Other schools sprung up, encouraged by its desertion, and promoted by those with whom it was an object to prevent science from falling into oblivion. Many of these, indeed, existed but for a time, and when the teachers that had given them a temporary celebrity died, fell back into obscurity; but some of them did reach a pitch of renown, and had received privileges, that enabled them to become rivals, and no contemptible rivals, to the parent-school. Thus, during the course of the thirteenth cen-

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* The great uncertainty in which we must remain with regard to the real numbers of residents in the older Universities may be proved from this circumstance, that, of the writers who have given an account of the University of Prague, some make the number of students, who attended it at the commencement of the fifteenth century, as high as 44,000, others 36,000, or 24,000, and others as low as 5000 and 4400. The last calculation certainly is the most likely to be near the truth.—Voigt. p. 82. Meiners, I. 226.

tury, were founded the famous Universities of Toulouse, Salamanca, Padua, Montpelier, Oxford, and Cambridge. Alarmed at the increase and progress of other schools, the University of Paris used its utmost influence with the Kings of France and the Pope, to put a check to their extension in France, under the plea of their interfering with its privileges; these requests, however, were not much attended to, and Universities continued to be founded both in France and elsewhere, according to the partialities or caprices of temporal sovereigns, and of the head of the church. During the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, the number of Universities founded in Europe is quite incredible. The following list gives the date of foundation of some of the most celebrated:—

Pisa,	1338
Valladolid,	1346
Prague,	1348
Pavia,	1361
Vienna,	1365
Heidelberg,	1387
Erfurt,	1392
Leipsic,	1409

Valentia,	1410
St Andrews,	1411
Glasgow,	1454
Greifswald,	1456
Freyberg,	1457
Saragossa,	1474
Tübingen,	1477
Aberdeen,	1477
Copenhagen,	1479
Alcala,	1499

The very unsettled state of the kingdom of France favoured much the prosperity of these new establishments. A series of wars, foreign and domestic, kept up a constant state of effervescence in the minds of the Parisians; and the government, occupied in consolidating its own precarious power, and in annoying its enemies, was in no condition to give due attention to the progress of learning, or the literary instruction of its subjects: but, notwithstanding all these disadvantages, the University of Paris, by means principally of its numerous colleges, many of which were excellently conducted, though it lost a great proportion of its students, kept up a degree of respectability and celebrity that

gave it a great and preponderating influence over the affairs of Europe.

As already mentioned, the University of Paris obtained its greatest privileges from Philip Augustus, about the commencement of the thirteenth century. To the benefit of these privileges, not only were members, but even the servants and dependants of members admitted. The natural consequence of this was, an overbearing and insolent behaviour to the citizens, who had it not much in their power to show effectual resentment; and so far was it carried, that the Bishop of Paris found himself called upon to use severe means for checking its progress. The head of the Metropolitan Church was, *ex officio*, head of the University; but his jurisdiction was by no means agreeable to that body, and between them there existed continual cause of dispute; his orders therefore did not always meet with the deference he wished and expected. The breach was widened by the part he took in the affairs during the regency of Queen Blanche; and, unfortunately for him, the Pope having favoured the side of the Uni-

versity, his rights were in no small degree abridged.

Pope Gregory IX., in a bull afterwards approved and extended by Innocent IV., forbade any one to issue an interdict or bann of suspension against a member of the University, without express permission of the court of the Vatican; and nearly about the same period he issued another bull appointing three high churchmen to watch over the privileges of that body, and protect them from encroachment. At a later period the Cardinal de Brie obtained for the University a still higher prerogative, that of choosing one of these churchmen as the advocate and defender of its rights.—This was gaining no feeble weapon of defence, not only against the encroachments and tyranny of the Bishop of Paris, but also against the interference of the Court and Parliament.

The good understanding subsisting between the University and the Pope was seldom disturbed; for each had an object in keeping well with the other. As long as the Pope's influence remained unimpaired, the University was

always secure from encroachments of any kind; for when any attempt was made by the court or parliament to annul or curtail its privileges, recourse was immediately had to the Holy Father, who, in almost every case, favoured the University, as an important means of upholding his own influence. But this mutual dependence could only exist as long as the power of the Pope's councils remained unquestioned in the state, and as this power was diminished, church interference became of less avail in supporting the pretensions of the University. The downfall of the Pope's influence was very gradual, but at the same time very apparent. The first symptoms of opposition to his orders are to be observed about the beginning of the fourteenth century. It had always been accounted his highest prerogative to erect seminaries of education, and endow them with privileges, and never had this been disputed; but, towards the year 1305, Clement V., who had studied at Orleans, for some time famous as a school of jurisprudence, elevated it to the rank of an University, and bestowed upon it, not only all

the privileges of the University of Toulouse, but even those of a more dangerous and powerful nature possessed by that of the capital. But Philip the Fair looked with a jealous eye on the power of the Pope; and, in this case, shewed that he deemed the act of the pontiff an infringement on his royal prerogative. Unwilling to risk an open rupture with the church, he did not dispute the Pope's bull, nor did he refuse to ratify the privileges contained in it; but, at the same time, he refused to acknowledge the masters and scholars as forming a privileged body, or to give them the right of making statutes or electing office-bearers. The powerful privileges of this new school soon excited violent commotions between its members and the citizens. The latter referred their grievances to the King, who, seizing upon this opportunity of shewing his power, suppressed the University, and immediately re-instituted it, always *protesting against the presumption of the church of Rome.**

This was an example not lost upon future

* Crevier.

monarchs; and it seems to have been in great measure the means of breaking the chains imposed by the church on temporal sovereigns; for it appears, that as early as 1364, Charles V. affording the first instance of such independence in a King of France, founded an University without the consent of the Pope in the city of Angers, to which he granted all the privileges formerly enjoyed by that of Orleans.*

The credit of the University of Paris stood very high about the year 1320.† It had received many additional privileges from Pope Julian XXII., and from Louis the Tenth, and its interference in matters of state and justice was of great and deserved weight. Not only was it respected and looked up to by the laity, but its power over the Mendicant Monks had increased to such a degree, that a Dominican was forced to make an humble apology for having in some way given it offence.‡

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* Duboullai, IV. 105, 106, 381. † Meiners, I. 360.
‡ Crevier, II. 260.

Philip of Valois, no less than his predecessor, loaded the University with benefits, increased its privileges, and freed it from many imposts and taxes. He revived an old law which placed it under the protection of the *Prevot* of Paris, who was obliged to watch over its rights, and punish any one, not merely in Paris, but in any part of the kingdom, who might attempt any thing against its members.

A few years after this, one of the most important discussions arose that ever agitated Christendom. This was the great schism of the West, which, while for the space of more than forty years it divided and distracted Europe, gave to the University, from the temperate manner in which it conducted itself, a degree of celebrity never attained before. At this period it was looked up to and consulted on every occasion and by every party, and its concurrence was accounted of the highest consequence to any important measure. After the election of Clement VII., the University was for some time undecided how to act; but, upon due consideration, the greater party acknow-

ledged him in opposition to Urban; and afterwards, when matters came to extremities, they employed their utmost endeavours to heal the schism that was so disgraceful and so hurtful to Christianity.

The residence of the Pope at Avignon, while it was advantageous to the progress of science in general, tended more particularly to the advancement of the study of the canon law in the University of Paris. This had always been a favourite pursuit with the court of Rome, and was even by many preferred to Theology. The opinion of Clement upon the latter may be gathered from the following remark made by him in speaking of a young man who was engaged in studying it,—*Que veut il faire avec les Theologiens? ce sont des visionnaires.**

* At this period of its history there arose a considerable dispute in the University respecting the conduct of the Chancellors, who had for a length of time been carrying on a traffic in fees, taken from Bachelors wishing the license.

* Duboullai, IV. 891.

A strong and laudable opposition was made to this; and, in 1384, a law was passed, by which the principal statutes promulgated by Robert de Courçon and Gregory IX., the object of which was to forbid the Chancellor to receive money, were ordered to be read at the commencement of every scholastic year, and upon all important occasions.*

About the year 1390, the King issued statutes, forbidding any one that had not been examined, and accounted duly qualified, from practising in medicine and surgery. This was an important epoch in the history of medical science, as affording proof of the superiority it had acquired, and the necessity the government thought itself under of maintaining, at a height of respectability, a science so important to mankind, which would soon have been degraded by the admission of unqualified practitioners.

The University, loaded with benefits by the lawful sovereigns of France, saw with regret

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* Duboullai, IV. 599.

the successes of the English under Henry V. The battle of Agincourt was a blow as heavy as it was unexpected, and brought consternation and distress into Paris. The English government, instead of following the example of the French Kings, who fostered and encouraged the University, was, on the contrary, inclined to debase it, by curtailing its privileges, and laying its members under contribution for the payment of imposts and taxes. The return therefore of the lawful sovereign, and the expulsion of the English, were matters of great and just rejoicing; and Charles, upon his entry into his capital, was received in a manner that shewed how agreeable this event was to the feelings, and how consonant to the wishes of all ranks of his subjects. During the English dominion in France, the foundation of one or two celebrated schools was laid. The Duke of Bedford was very desirous of establishing an University at Caen; but continual wars, and the necessity he was under of using all his endeavours to maintain his position, rendered irksome at once by the machinations of the

French, and by the cabals of his own countrymen, prevented him from carrying his intentions to the length first proposed; and it was instituted by letters patent of Henry VI. of England and France, merely as an *Etude de Lois et Decrets*, or as a school in which canon and civil law were to be taught.* The University of Paris made a strong and determined opposition to the passing of these letters, when brought before the Parliament in 1433; and, when they found it to no purpose, applied to the council of Basle, then sitting. Notwithstanding all these endeavours, however, the school was established, and to the study of Law were soon added those of Theology, Medicine, and the Arts; and at last, in 1437, it obtained a bull from Pope Eugene IV., elevating it to the rank of an University, which bull was approved of by the succeeding Pope, Nicolas V. When Charles of France once more acquired his legitimate rights, he remodelled and created it anew in 1452, without, however, granting it

* Crevier.

any privileges that might interfere with his royal dignity or prerogative.

It was long before the French kings, or the French people in general, could be brought to imagine that any one but the Pope had the right of establishing schools and granting permission to teach; and for a long period the monarchs who gave privileges, did not seem to think they were entitled to give laws; but, as has already been remarked, the notions entertained of the unlimited power of the church in this respect gradually died away, and the Monarch of France, instead of blindly bowing, as in former times, to the orders of the court of Rome, by degrees weakened and circumscribed its power, till at last, alterations, reformations, and promotions were made in existing Universities, and new ones were founded, in utter disregard of the Pope's rights, whether just or unjust, as head of the church.

Charles VII. was a strenuous supporter of the dignity of the Crown, and he shewed his determination by the energy and independence of his language. He says in one of his edicts,

—De nostra regia auctoritate et gratia speciali cum plenitudine potestatis Universitatem et studium generale in præfata villa nostra Cadomensi denuo creavimus et erexímus, creamus pariter et erigimus per præsentes.

The University of Paris possessed an old right of being judged by the King alone. Upon several occasions its attempts to revive this right, against the power of the Parliament, produced no little confusion and disturbance, which at last ended, as might have been foreseen, in its losing that right altogether. In 1445, the Parliament, wishing to subject it to certain imposts, the University resisted, and applied to the King. Finding its demands not attended to, it had recourse to its old and once powerful weapon of defence, and ordered a cessation,*

* It may perhaps be proper in this place to explain in a few words the meaning of the term *cessation*. When the University deemed itself aggrieved in any matters touching its rights and privileges, amongst other means of gaining satisfaction, none was found to be of more avail than that of a *cessation*, or, in other words, of putting a stop to the whole business of the University. During a cessation, therefore, the classes were no longer taught, and, as the

which only farther irritated the King, who issued a mandate, ordering an instant removal of the cessation, and at the same time, by a formal *ordonnance*, placed the University from henceforth under the jurisdiction of the Parliament, as the sovereign council of the realm. This terrible blow took place in 1446. The University was thus deprived of a great portion of its independence, and, as the influence it once possessed through the Pope's interference was now so much weakened, it had no alternative but to submit. It still, however, maintained its dignity, and, though its privileges were so much curtailed, it long held a proud

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ministers of religion were members of the University, the public offices of religion were also for the time interrupted.

At a period when the minds of the people were entirely fettered by the priesthood, the consequence may be easily imagined; the interruption of their sacred duties could not last long without producing a commotion, and the court was not in a state to brave the chance of this. The University, therefore, for many centuries employed, with unvaried success, a weapon, whose strength consisted in the weakness of the court and the superstition of the people.—Vide *Meiners*, II. 79.

and elevated position in the councils of the state and of Europe.

About this period of its history, a measure that had for several years been contemplated was at last brought about. In 1447, Commissioners had been appointed to take the propriety of a reform into consideration, and, if possible, to carry it into effect. It failed, however, at that time; but, in 1451, the King, in a letter to the University, ordered an immediate reform of abuses, and of course it was necessary that no farther delay should occur. Cardinal de Touteville, formerly a member of the University, and at the same time Pope's Legate in Paris, excited as much by his own zeal for the welfare of the school, as by the urgent entreaties of many of the most dignified members of the state, with the powerful aid of Charles VII., proceeded to this great and important work.

He founded his reform very much upon ancient statutes, and, after a great deal of labour, prepared a code, remarkable not more for the

wisdom of its laws than for the excellent moral precepts which it inculcated. To the students of Theology he recommended the most scrupulous attention to morals, and excluded all from their body, whose lives were in any degree dissipated or licentious. In the Faculty of Canon Law he required proper attestations of regular attendance, and ordered each Doctor annually to expound a point of that law to the professing Bachelor; whilst, in the Medical Faculty, the only important change was the abrogation of the law which enjoined celibacy to its members. In the Faculty of Arts his amendments chiefly referred to the moral education of the students, who, being of a more delicate age, required a greater degree of attention and more strict *surveillance* than the students of the higher faculties. In all he endeavoured, as far as possible, to regulate fees, to moderate expenses, and prevent extortion; and he appointed that every year, in the month of October, a commission of four censors should sit to examine into the state of the colleges, and see that every thing was conducted with attention to morality and

propriety of conduct.* This excellent code was read publicly in a general assembly of the University on the 28th of June, 1452.†

Not long after this, a revolution took place in the world of literature, by the greatest invention ever made by human labour or human ingenuity,—the discovery of the art of printing. When the original establishment at Mayence was broken up, Ulric Gering of Constance, Martin Krantz, and Michel Friburger of Colmar, were invited to Paris, and lodged in the Sorbonne, by Fichet and La Pierre. There the first printing-press in Paris was set at work; and this must be accounted one of the most highly important epochs in the history of the University: a new, unlooked-for, and inexhaustible field was laid open to the cultivation of science, and that institution, which had long held the station and title of mother of the arts, was not likely to let this discovery exist long without using it to its advantage.

When Louis XI. succeeded to the throne,

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* Duboullai, V. 561. † Crevier, IV. 168.

his policy became of such a nature as to weaken, in no small degree, the prosperity of the Parisian school. His tyrannical temper could not brook a superiority that appeared to rival his own kingly state; but, at the same time, that political cunning which marked all his actions, prevented him from treating it with open and undisguised harshness. Whilst he aided very little in supporting its renown, and indeed rather used every covert means of diminishing it, he often appeared solely intent on endeavouring to raise its celebrity higher than it had been before his accession.

During the wars between him and his almost equally powerful and much more open-hearted vassal, the Duke of Burgundy, the University received a severe blow, by an order upon all the members, subjects of the Duke, amounting to about 400 in number, to quit Paris,—an order which was followed by the confiscation of their goods.

But, though subjected to the dominion of a tyrant, the University never forgot its own dignity, nor would agree to any infringement of

its statutes, even when urged by royal command. A striking instance of this occurred upon occasion of the visit of Alphonso of Castile to France. He had expressed his wish that one of his subjects should be honoured with the license of Doctor in Theology; but though Louis himself supported the request, and their Chancellor insisted on compliance, the University boldly and firmly refused ever to confer a degree upon any one who had not regularly studied at Paris.*

The death of Louis was an event little regretted by any member of the state, and the University soon forgot him in the benefits and kindnesses lavished upon it by Charles VIII., his son and successor, who, himself fond of literature, paid the greatest attention to its interests, and frequently was present in person at its meetings for conferring academic honours.†

By an *ordonnance* of 1483, this monarch fixed the officers of the University as follows:—

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* Crevier, IV. 377. † Launoi Hist. du Coll. de Navarre, I. 98, 99.

14 Bedeaux, { 6 for the superior Faculties, 8 for the nations,

4 Avocats, 2 Procureurs, } Au Parlement,

2 Avocats, 1 Procureur, } Au Chatelet,

24 Libraires,

4 Parcheminiers,

4 Marchands Vendeurs de Papier, residing in Paris,

7 Manufactures de Papier, { 3 in Troyes, 4 in Corbeil and Essone,

2 Enlumineurs,

2 Relieurs,

2 Ecrivains de Livres,

1 Messager for each diocese of the realm; and one for all foreign dioceses from which any members of the University might have come.*

During the lapse of a period when so many changes were taking place in the University with regard to internal economy, the Faculty of Arts always kept its ancient privilege of having four voices, though the superior Faculties used their utmost endeavours to reduce

* Crevier, IV. 447.

it to an equality with themselves. Thus, when it was proposed to send a deputation to the King, in 1447, they insisted upon its consisting only of four persons, representing the four Faculties. The Faculty of Arts would not however admit of this; the meeting in consequence was broken up, and another called on the 15th November, in which the nations completely gained their point, and the commission appointed consisted of seven persons.* In like manner, the deputation sent up to the King to receive his *ordonnance* of 1483, consisted of seven members.

While Louis XII. confirmed the privileges of the University in many points, he, at the same time, to prevent abuse, put a certain degree of restriction upon them, which had the effect of raising no inconsiderable degree of commotion among the members of that body; who, finding they were not likely to have it removed, had recourse to the old and often successful system of cessation.

* Crevier, IV. 154.

It must be remarked, that in those times in which the University was more independent than it afterwards became, and before the monarchs of France had courage enough to check its overbearing behaviour, encouraged as it often was by the head of the church, it generally succeeded in gaining any favourite point, by ordering, when all other means of redress had failed, a cessation of teaching, and of the public offices of religion. At a period when bigotry and church-influence enslaved and fettered the minds of men, their superstitious feelings were soon raised, and the dread of a continual suspension of the sacred duties of religion readily procured any concession.

The University never failed to make use of this formidable instrument, and most generally with success, or at least with impunity, till the reign of Louis XII. when, upon attempting it in the case just mentioned, respecting the restriction of its privileges in the year 1499, the King was so highly incensed at what he deemed an insult to his authority, that he issued an order, commanding the University, under pain of

high displeasure, to resume instantly the performance of its duties. He was obeyed, and from this time a similar course of resistance was never again adopted.

For a considerable period, and more particularly about the beginning of the fourteenth century, much scandal had been occasioned, not only in the University, but in the city of Paris, by the contentions in which the different branches of the medical profession were embroiled amongst themselves, about their mutual privileges. In early periods of history, the professions of Physician and Surgeon were synonymous, or rather they were confounded together; but as the Medical Science rose in importance, Physicians refused to practise the manual part of their art, and in consequence a new class sprung up, totally unconnected with the University, who practised in that department alone, and who were named Surgeons. But so ignorant and ill-educated were these persons, and so unfit for their profession, that Philip the Fair, to prevent the art from falling altogether to ruin, issued an *ordonnance*, commanding,

under severe penalties, all who wished to practise Surgery, to take a license from the Surgeon attached to his own person at the *Chatelet*, and an oath before the *Prevot*. At this period various circumstances prove that the Surgeons were totally unconnected with the University; and the fact, that women were admitted into their number, is alone sufficient to establish this. In 1356 their connexion with the University for the first time appears, from the Surgeons being then ordered, along with the booksellers, binders, and other inferior members or rather dependants, to guard the gates of Paris upon some occasion of danger. While this shews their connexion with the University, it also shews the low degree of estimation in which they were held. The precise period at which they were admitted to the rights of scholarity it is difficult to determine, some writers making it as early as 1390, others not till 1436. It is certain, however, that in the latter year, on the 13th of March, there was convened a meeting of the University, in which, after some debate, it was agreed to admit the Surgeons to

the full enjoyment of the rights and immunities possessed by that body, provided they attended the courses of lectures given by the Professors of Medicine.

This qualification could not but be exceedingly disagreeable to the Surgeons, who endeavoured as far as possible to evade it; but the Physicians were by no means inclined to lose the hold they had thus obtained over them, and passed a law refusing to give an attestation to any Surgeon who had not properly inscribed himself in their register.

As might well be supposed, there existed no great feeling of cordiality between the two bodies. The Surgeons were offended at the implied inferiority of their profession, and the Physicians, anxious to maintain their influence undiminished, used every means to keep them under. A fair opportunity was not long of presenting itself. In Paris, as in most towns, there were two orders of persons practising Surgery, the Surgeons properly so called, or of the long robe, and the Surgeon-Barbers. Between them there existed constant causes of

dispute; and the latter, towards the close of the fifteenth century, had gained the superiority as much in the practice as in the knowledge of their profession. With less pretensions than the Surgeons of the long robe, they yielded in all points to the Physicians, who at last, in the year 1506, as a means of annoyance to the Surgeons, formally took them under their protection, but under the implied condition, that they were to be subservient to them in all points, and have no professional meeting with any one who had not been licensed by the Faculty. The Surgeons of the long robe and the Surgeon-Barbers remained distinct bodies and rivals for a long period: they united in 1656; but in 1743 the King did entirely away with the latter, and ordered that from that time all persons practising Surgery should be lettered.*

The year 1509 was remarkable in the history of the University, as exhibiting the first instance of the Faculty of Arts yielding any of

* Crevier, V. 48, et seq. Pasquier, Richesses de la France, IX. 30.

its privileges. This was attended with very long debates, which ended in a determination that henceforth, in important cases, each of the seven companies should consult apart, and give its opinion by its Procurator or Dean. In this way the Faculty of Arts evidently lost much of its influence, as questions were now decided by a simple majority of votes. During the course of the sixteenth century the University was very nearly brought to complete ruin, from a brawl which took place in the *Pré aux Clercs*, a piece of ground pertaining to it, and on which the great extension of the town rendered building necessary. This happened in the year 1557. A student had been killed, by what means is not well known; but his fellow-students, incensed and irritated to the highest degree, burnt or razed to the foundation several of the houses, refused obstinately to listen to the remonstrances of the authorities, distributed seditious papers and placards, and, in fine, threatened to take most complete and summary vengeance. The Parliament, extremely incensed, issued the most sanguinary orders, the city-authorities

were no less exasperated, and the King ordered a detachment of troops to the University. Many of the students were maltreated, and others arrested; and the royal commands even extended so far as to order the statutes, on which the high privileges of the University were founded, to be seized.

The greater proportion of the students now fled or concealed themselves, the lectures were discontinued, the schools shut, and the colleges deserted. The heads of the University were loudly reproached for not endeavouring more effectually to obviate such irregularities. Their answer was, that the affair had originated with some common labourers, not with the students; and that, besides, there were many persons in the city who, known by the term *Martincts*, attended the lectures, but were not under their control. The King's anger at last cooled, but not till summary vengeance had been taken for the insult paid to his authority.

Nothing could shew in a clearer manner than this affair how much the University had fallen off from its former importance. Instead

of getting, as happened during the regency of Queen Blanche, a full and ready reparation for the death of one of its body, it had to witness another put to an ignominious death; and, instead of instantly closing, in the height of its indignation, the school of its own accord, it was ordered to do so by the civil authorities.*

For some years after this few occurrences of great interest occupied the attention of the University. Several attempts at reformation were made, but never carried into full effect. Regulations were framed respecting fees, which had always been on a very bad footing; and attempts were also made to introduce civil law, but without success. At last the attention of the school of Paris, as well as that of all Europe, was turned upon an order, whose influence for a time over the minds of men was greater than any other religious body ever possessed. This was the formidable order of Jesuits, which, it may be said, took its commencement in the University, though always regarded by it with

* Crevier, VI. 30. 50.

the utmost jealousy and dislike. Several churchmen, who had been educated at this school, at the head of whom were Ignace de Loyola and St Francis Xavier, having founded a society, applied to the Pope for a bull, which was granted, constituting them into a body, under the title of the Society of Jesus. This society, though assisted by all the influence of the court of Rome, did not at once obtain a footing in Paris. The powerful aid and protection, however, of Cardinal de Lorraine, and the zeal which its members shewed in putting down the new sect of the Huguenots, by degrees brought it into notice, and it was not long in manifesting its intentions, and the dangerous nature of its doctrines. As might be supposed, the first endeavours of the Jesuits were directed towards the University. Having established colleges, and having fixed themselves in the Sorbonne, under the direction of the Cardinal de Lorraine, they commenced giving lessons. The permission to do this, from the rooted dislike which the University always had to teachers belonging to religious orders,

would not have been easily granted, had they not found a friend in the Rector, who had formerly been a Bachelor of the Sorbonne, and who gave them the right of teaching secretly, and without the concurrence of the heads of the school.

On an appointed day the Jesuits opened their colleges, with this inscription over the gate of each,—*College of the Society of Jesus.* The University now opposed them violently, and a new Rector passed a law forbidding them to teach publicly. The Jesuits here shewed the true features of their character; cunning, deceit, and prevarication formed their weapons; and, when they were questioned as to the nature of their tenets and principles, their answers were framed in so indirect a manner as to give no satisfaction. The University, therefore, continuing to refuse them admission, they applied to the Parliament; from which, after long debates on both sides, they obtained some slight advantage, but by no means all to which they aspired.

After the massacre of St Bartholomew the

Jesuits redoubled their endeavours to be received into the body of the University; and, in 1572, it was determined by the latter neither to reject nor receive, but merely to tolerate them. Again, in 1573, it passed a resolution not to receive, license, or grant a degree of master to any one who had studied under the Jesuits; and still farther, in 1574, the Faculty of Arts excluded scholars of Jesuits from all academical privileges.*

The kingdom of France was now distracted by factions and parties; the inhabitants were divided between the Leaguers and Huguenots; and outrages, civil wars, and bloodshed overwhelmed this devoted country. It was not to be expected that the University could remain altogether untainted by the doctrines of the day, or, when the whole kingdom was a prey to disorder, that it alone could be undisturbed and uncorrupted. In fact, a complete disorganization took place. Instruction was little, if at all, attended to; the minds of men were agi-

* Crevier, VI. 291.

tated by passions that left no room for the study of literature. Lecturing was at an end, and the colleges, instead of being filled with students, were occupied by armed men. This continued till the success of Henry enabled him to enter Paris in triumph, when the University of Paris once more resumed its proper position; and one of its first acts was to demand the expulsion of the Jesuits, who, along with the Capucines, refused obstinately to acknowledge the lawful Sovereign. The affair of Chatel* at last sealed their doom; and, whilst he was punished in the manner his crime deserved, the Jesuits were ordered, as corrupters of youth, disturbers of the public repose, and enemies of the King and state, within the space of three days, to leave Paris, and within fifteen days to quit the realm, under pain, if found in France after that period,

* When Henry the Fourth, in his palace of the Louvre, was in the act of stooping to embrace a nobleman who had just been introduced to him, he received a blow with a knife, which wounded him in the lip. The assassin was instantly seized, and turned out to be one John Chatel, a pupil of the Jesuits, whose doctrines had incited him to the deed.

of being punished as guilty of *Læze Majesté.* The same *arret* also forbade all subjects of the King, under a similar penalty, to send scholars to the colleges of the society beyond the limits of the realm.

The University stood at this time in great need of reform, and as soon as the state was in some measure recovered from the confusion it had been thrown into by the late struggles, a commission was appointed, consisting of De Thou, King's Counsellor, and President of the Parliament, of Lazare Coquelay, and Edward Mole, also King's Counsellors, who, attended by the proper authorities, repaired to the hall of the Mathurins, where they were received by the Rector, the Procurators of the nations, Deans of the Faculties, Principals of the Colleges, and other office-bearers. A number of laws were read by the President of the Commission, which were to form the future code of the University: they were promulgated in the year 1598; and thus at last there form so long proposed, and so very necessary, was brought about.

It is a matter of very considerable difficulty to determine the precise epoch when the University first possessed the right of conferring degrees upon its members. The title of Licentiate is met with very early, and there exist regulations in the eleventh and twelfth centuries concerning it, in which it is forbidden that those who confer it should take any fees. The terms of Doctor and Master also occur very early in the history of the University; and it is more than likely that they were conferred merely as titles of honour, without the form of examination, upon such teachers or persons as distinguished themselves in any particular manner. Nothing approaching in character to the academic honours of the present day seems to have existed till the beginning of the thirteenth century, when, by a letter of Robert de Courçon, dated 1215, it is ordered, that every person wishing to profess the Fine Arts should study for the space of six years, and be examined according to a form determined by the school and Chancellor jointly, and then he should further study for two years; probably before he

had the right of demanding the license.* The same regulations were applicable to Theology. Medicine appears to have been the science in which degrees were longest of being given; but it soon followed the example of the others. The term Bachelor is mentioned for the first time in a bull of Pope Gregory IX. in 1231. This Pope ordered, that promotions to academic honours should be made upon a full and proper examination before qualified persons. An after statute of the University itself prescribed an oath to be administered, both to the examinator and candidates, in which it was expressly forbidden to take or give any money, or examine above a certain number of candidates each month.†

The three titles were those of Bachelor, Licentiate, and Doctor, and it would appear, that they were not always conferred by the same authority; thus the degrees of Bachelor and Licentiate seem to have been conferred by the Chancellor, and that of Doctor by the Faculty

* Crevier, VII. 143. † Meiners, I. 231.

to which the aspirant belonged. It is evident, that while the higher Faculties conferred the title of Doctor, their Bachelor belonged to the nations, or Faculty of Arts.

When the four Faculties of Theology, Law, Medicine, and Arts, became more distinct and more defined, the manner of conferring academic honours was placed on a more regular footing; certain courses of examination were followed out more strictly, and certain fees were taken and given; but it was some time before the Faculties could agree among themselves as to the extent of their respective rights; and it was not determined till towards the fifteenth century that each had the right to grant its own honours, to reject those who, after examination, were not found qualified, and to recommend to the Chancellor those he might license.

In the early period of the history of the Parisian school, there does not seem to have existed any fixed inscription or matriculation fee: certain small sums were paid by students upon entering the University, and by Professors on taking their chairs; but it is to the period of Car-

dinal de Touteville's reform that we must refer the first rules laid down upon a fixed basis respecting University-dues. After 1456, every person who entered his name in the University-books was obliged to pay the sum of twenty-four sous to the Rector elect. With regard to the fees to be paid upon receiving a degree of Bachelor, Licentiate, or Doctor, there existed much confusion and much abuse. The Cardinal fixed the cost of a license of the Faculty of Canon Law at fourteen gold crowns, and of a Bachelor at seven. About the same time the course of study necessary for becoming Bachelor of Arts was fixed at three years and a half; after which it was requisite to study Natural Philosophy and Mathematics, attend the disputations of the masters, and support two theses before obtaining the license. After the examinations, the candidates were conducted by the Rector to the Chancellor, who blessed and crowned them. Having obtained the license, three and a half years' study was necessary before receiving the *Bonnet* or *Placet;* after which the aspirant might supplicate *pro regentia et scholis,* or for the

first vacant situation, to commence his career of teaching.

In 1460, the German nation made some laws respecting promotions to the dignity of Bachelor or Master of Arts; it fixed the fee of an examinator at two sous, and permitted the admission of such as had studied in other schools, provided they were schools of some celebrity; but two years' study they deemed, in this case, equivalent to only one at Paris.* In 1562, on account of the abuses that existed in respect to fees and honoraries, a species of reform was attempted. The fees of the Faculty of Law were allowed to remain at twenty-eight crowns, as fixed in 1534; the others were altered; those for Master of Arts were fixed at fifty-six livres, twelve sous; those of Doctor of Medicine at eight hundred and eighty-one livres, five sous; and those of Doctor in Theology at one thousand and two livres. About the same time also an important improvement was made in the study of Medicine, the students being obliged

* Duboullai, V. 646.

to follow out the actual practice of the art under the eyes of the Professors.

Notwithstanding all the regulations made respecting fees, there still continued to exist much abuse and much bribery. Students were often glad to resort to improper means of advancement, and the servants of the University were not always above corruption. The Parliament endeavoured to remedy the evil, but not with the desired or looked-for success, and it went on increasing till the reform of 1598, when it was in some measure amended. At this reform also several important regulations were made; among others, the title of Bachelor of Theology was not to be conferred till the candidate had studied five years, and was thirty years of age; in the eighteenth century these were reduced to three years' study, and twenty-one years of age.

In the Faculty of Law the necessity of celibacy was dispensed with; in the Faculty of Medicine this had already been done as regarded Doctors, but not as regarded Bachelors. It was now done away with altogether.

It has already been remarked, that there exists much uncertainty as to the antiquity of the different component parts of the great body of the University of Paris. Crevier, going as much as possible on facts, and putting aside all vague conjectures, gives the following summary, as being pretty near the truth. The University of Paris, as a school, goes back as far as the age of Charlemagne; as a company it existed in 1169. Its Head or Rector is named in a diploma of Philip Augustus in 1200; the Procurators of the nations, in 1299; the Faculty of Theology existed as a separate body in 1267; the Faculties of Canon Law and Medicine in 1281; the rights of the Chancellor of Notre Dame were exercised in 1169. The degrees of Bachelor and Licentiate are clearly mentioned in the statute of Robert de Courçon, in 1215; and the term Bachelor is distinctly expressed in Pope Gregory's bull, in 1231.*

To give an account of the various changes and partial reforms that took place in the Uni-

* Crevier, VII. 162.

versity of Paris during the greatest part of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, would be to extend the present narrative to too great a length, without presenting at the same time a proportional degree of interest; abuses crept in, and, in the general corruption of the age, the University, like other institutions, suffered. At its final and total destruction, in 1792, its composition was in nature very slightly different from what it originally had been, and the following summary of its component parts, as given by Crevier, offers an excellent idea of this composition.

The University of Paris consists of seven companies:—

1. The Faculty of Theology, presided over by the oldest of its secular Doctors, under the title of Dean.
2. The Faculty of Law, originally established for Canon Law alone, but authorised by an *ordonnance* of 1679, to teach also Civil Law; presided over by a Dean, chosen from the Professors annually, and according to standing.
3. The Faculty of Medicine, presided over by a Dean, eligible every two years.
4. The nation of France.
5. The nation of Picardy.

6. The nation of Normandy.

7. The nation of Germany, formerly of England. Each of these nations presided by its Procurator, who is elected annually: the four together form the Faculty of Arts, although they are distinct companies, each having a vote in the general affairs of the University.

A Rector, chosen from the body of the Faculty of Arts, is head of the whole University, and the Faculty of Arts more particularly.

Three principal and perpetual officers,

Syndic,

Greffier,

Receiver,—all three officers of the University, and chosen from the Faculty of Arts.

BEFORE the commencement of the French Revolution,—an event that will be ever memorable in the history of the world, as well for the actual circumstances attending it, as for the consequences that have arisen from it,—there had existed great cause of complaint, partly real and partly imaginary, and considerable feeling of dislike and illiberality towards the seminaries of public instruction throughout France. This was not occasioned by a falling-off in the state of literature; on the contrary, the eighteenth century will be ever glorious in the history of France as the age of learning; nor did it arise from any indifference on the part of the people about the attainment of knowledge, for at this period knowledge was making rapid progress among all ranks; but there were other causes that tended to degrade the system of public education in the eyes of Frenchmen. The doctrines that had been taught in the schools for centuries were no longer taught unopposed, and those tenets which, from a blind subjection to

the church of Rome and its bigoted priesthood, had stood so long uncontradicted, a few illustrious writers had shaken to the foundation. The spirit of the Universities was at variance with the spirit of the times, and the spirit of the body of the Universities at variance with that of many of their most able members. The country was becoming enlightened; whilst those who studied with the intention of becoming public instructors, found themselves, upon leaving the University, where they had been educated, behind the world in many respects, and, it may be said, were forced to unlearn every thing, in order to commence their education anew. This was a state of things that could not last long; and the catastrophe was hastened by the diffusion of a new Philosophy, which was rapidly gaining ground, and the doctrines of which, though long in openly manifesting themselves, and though opposed by all the influence of church and state, were not destined to be slow or ineffective in their ultimate progress.

But it must not be supposed that the low

state into which the Universities of France had fallen in public estimation was altogether owing to defects in their own constitution. Though, perhaps, proceeding in some measure from this cause, it is to the bias which the minds of men had received from doctrines, of which the tendency was to throw down all existing opinions, and establish in their place a new Philosophy, that it must be principally ascribed. Knowledge, it is true, was spreading among the people, but not in a manner calculated to produce good fruits; it was a knowledge unsupported by truth or reason, disseminated by a few powerful but ill-regulated minds, and received by a class of men who, unable to discover the fallacious or sophistical nature of the proof, or the insufficiency of the basis, were yet readily disposed to seize upon doctrines that flattered their worldly or personal feelings, and appeared to degrade what was above their attainment. Instruction, though become more general, was become more superficial, and what were termed the Positive Sciences were alone the object or pretended object of pursuit. The natural consequence of this was, the neglect of whatever had

hitherto been accounted most important in literature, and was still the great object of study at the schools.

The spirit of ancient literature was passing away, and a superficial education, calculated to unfit men for the dry details and intricate reasoning of the deeper branches of science, led to the cultivation of those branches, less complicated, more applicable to the every-day current of human affairs, and more agreeable and less fatiguing to the mind. What was disagreeable, therefore, was accounted useless, and the stale and abstruse doctrines of the Universities gave way before the novel and superficial, though alluring and eloquent Philosophy of a Diderot, a Raynal, a Voltaire, or a Rousseau.

The Universities still produced men of erudition, but this erudition was no longer applicable to the existing order of things, and exposed to ridicule rather than to admiration those who professed it. It was another species of literature that now conferred honour; and hosts of authors sprung up who, with the weapons of ridicule, soon destroyed the impressions of those who, in real science, were far above

them. By such writers appeals were made to the passions, and often to the worst passions of man; and what was wanting in genuine sentiment and just reasoning, was supplied by high-sounding and empty declamation.

The false impression thus made on the human mind was not confined to one class of men. It extended towards the lower classes, and not less towards the throne. There seemed everywhere to prevail an unsettled feeling of the necessity of some change, and an indigested plan of improvement, the exact nature of which no one knew. The nation had proceeded in advance of its institutions, and it was evident that some violence was inevitable before an equilibrium could be restored. The way was preparing for a revolution, the first movements of which promised a glorious and beneficial change, a change that was likely to have increased the dignity of man as well as to have alleviated the sufferings of humanity, and improved the condition of the great body of the people. But the deceitful glare of a false Philosophy had blinded men's eyes to their own in-

terests, and they destroyed the fabric which they themselves had raised.

Zeal for the good and improvement of his subjects was a strong feeling in the heart of the unfortunate Monarch of France; but he mistook the path which he ought to have followed, and wanted that firmness of character that was necessary to check the abuse of a spirit which, if kept within bounds, would have produced such good effects.

The ministers too, themselves deeply smitten with the prevailing philosophical doctrines of the day, had been looked up to for a change; but they found it more difficult, perhaps, to put their ideas into practice than they had supposed; what appeared easy and plausible in private life, when they attained power they found either impossible, or, from a change of sentiments, undesirable. But the people, who had expected a change, and who had a certain right to expect it, were not to be disappointed; the train had been laid, and the explosion was at hand. The spirit of revolution extended, and as it gained strength its character chang-

ed. It was no longer that salutary movement which was calculated to improve a nation; it became by degrees one that, under the mask of improvement, was to destroy indiscriminately all existing institutions.

Public opinion and public indignation were taken advantage of by designing men; discontent and restlessness prevailed in every class, combined with uncertainty and ignorance of what was desired; it was a moment then that only required the direction of a few able and unprincipled individuals, and these were not long of being found; pride, vanity, and personal interest became the ruling motives of the leaders of the revolution; the liberty that was demanded by the people, but the precise nature of which they did not know, was by them made a means of establishing their tyranny.

The Revolution was effected by public opinion; but when it had once taken place, that disappeared, and the acts of horror, madness, and folly which it exhibited, were no longer the expression of public opinion. They were the acts of a few men who, for the time, had concen-

trated in themselves the will and the power of action. Science and letters were found incompatible with the new order of things, and were neglected. Every establishment or institution belonging to the former era was, in the madness of innovation, destroyed, and, amongst others, the Universities, which were no longer deemed compatible with liberty and equality, were thrown down, to be raised anew in a form more adapted to the supposed regeneration of the human mind. But it was an easier matter to destroy than to re-establish them; and for some time, the nation remained destitute of all means of instruction even in the ordinary branches of education.

When the reign of anarchy had in some measure passed away, and when true lovers of their country once more had a voice in its government, the effects produced by the low state of literature became apparent, and measures were adopted to repair the mischief. But it was a long time before the passions of men sufficiently subsided to enable them to consider, free from prejudice and bias, the plans that were

proposed. Ideas of perfection were entertained which it was evident were not to be realized; and, in the desire to avoid all resemblance to the institutions of the Monarchy, the Republic was likely, in seeking after simplicity and equality, to lose sight of those laws and restrictions essentially necessary to the welfare of every seminary of education.

It was now a struggle between the doctrines of the Revolution, and those of reflecting minds uninfluenced by any sect or party, and the nation was not yet in a state to allow the triumph of the latter. Amongst the various plans proposed to the National Convention, some were of a description so lofty and extravagant as to excite at the present time a smile at their visionary perfection; others were too like the establishments of old, and alarmed the revolutionary spirit. Some men of enlightened character endeavoured to reconcile the two; but the time had not yet arrived for the cool and unbiassed consideration of so important a subject, and in consequence the first plan adopted and promulgated in the year 1795 by no means

answered the purposes intended, and was far from administering to the literary wants of the great body of the people.

According to the decree contained in the Moniteur of the 2d November of that year, three orders of schools were instituted,—Primary, Central, and Special Schools. In every canton of the Republic one or more primary schools were established, over which a Jury of Instruction, limited to a certain number of members, had jurisdiction: the teachers were examined by this Jury, and were nominated by the municipal authorities. In these schools were taught reading, writing, arithmetic, and the first principles of republican morals.

A central school was established in every department, and was divided into three *grades* or classes; in the first of these were taught drawing, natural history, and ancient and modern languages; in the second, the principles of mathematics, natural philosophy, and practical chemistry; in the third, general grammar and the fine arts, history and legislation. Students of the first class must have

attained the age of twelve years; of the second class the age of fourteen; and of the third class the age of sixteen.

Every central school was to have a library, a botanical garden, a collection of natural curiosities, and also of chemical and philosophical apparatus.

In the special schools were to be taught—

Astronomy,
Geometry and Mathematics,
Natural History,
Medicine,
The Veterinary Art,
Economy,
Antiquities,
Political Science,
Painting, Sculpture, and Architecture,
Music.

Such was the plan of public instruction adopted by the National Convention, which, however, was never fully carried into execution, and which in a few years was superseded by a new system of organization of still shorter duration.

In no science were the bad effects of this fluctuating state of things more severely felt than in the medical; but it may also be truly averred, there was no science that sooner regained the degree of consideration it merited, or was in the end more benefited by the change it had undergone.

Before the year 1792, the medical education of France was by no means on a proper footing. The number of Faculties, and the expense of graduations in those of celebrity, prevented the good effects that would have arisen from a great concourse of students at one school, and scattered them over the country to obtain often an imperfect education in towns where a degree could be procured for less money and with less trouble. Before 1792, there existed in France eighteen Faculties of Medicine, of which the most celebrated and the best attended were those of Paris, Montpellier, Toulouse, Besançon, Perpignan, Caen, Rheims, Strasbourg, and Nancy; besides these eighteen Faculties, there were also fifteen colleges of Medicine, situated at Amiens; Angers, Bordeaux, Chalons, Cler-

mont, Dijon, Lisle, Lyon, Moulins, Orleans, Rennes, La Rochelle, Tours, and Troyes. The Faculties could alone confer degrees; the colleges were merely corporate bodies, into which the candidate, upon receiving his degree from a Faculty, was obliged to enter before he was entitled to practise in the towns in which these colleges were situated, or in the provinces of which these towns were the capitals. At this period, in order to obtain a degree of Doctor of Medicine, it was necessary to have attended the medical classes for three or four years, to possess a degree of Master of Arts from an University, and to undergo five or six examinations, each several hours in length, besides defending a thesis. The expense of graduation varied considerably in different Faculties. In the provinces it generally amounted to five or six hundred francs; in the capital to six thousand, besides the annual inscriptions, amounting to between one and two hundred francs more. This enormous expense was an effectual bar to many from studying at Paris, which ought naturally

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to have been the first school of medicine in the kingdom, from the immense facilities afforded to students in the practical part of their profession.

Still the degrees of Paris and Montpellier were almost alone looked upon with consideration. Those of the other Faculties were frequently given to persons belonging to other provinces, who had never studied in them, and were therefore looked upon as very inferior and even discreditable.

When the decree of the 18th of August, 1792, had suppressed all existing literary establishments, and among others the Faculties of Medicine, there was no longer any regular admission of Physicians and Surgeons; the most complete anarchy succeeding to the ancient organization. Those who had studied their profession saw themselves confounded with those who were almost entirely ignorant of it. Patents were granted everywhere, equally to the one or other, and the lives of the citizens were in the hands of men as rapacious as they were

ignorant.* Credulity was abused by the most dangerous empiricism and most barefaced quackery; and as no proofs of knowledge or qualification were necessary, the science of medicine seemed on the point of falling entirely to decay.

If literature and science in general suffered from the Revolution, no branch suffered more for the time than medicine. There were no longer any schools, any establishments, where youth could be instructed in a profession at once so difficult and so important, and the few and irregular lectures that were given by individuals but ill supplied their place.

The Convention could not but be struck with the fatal effects of this system, which were so strikingly exemplified in the medical and surgical practice of its armies; and the organization that was absolutely necessary, and that could not be longer delayed, was one of the first acts of that assembly, which merited any praise, and shewed that men were opening their eyes to

* Code des Medecins par Beullac.

the real interests of humanity. Fourcroy having given in a report on the necessity of establishing the schools of medicine upon a proper footing, the Convention passed a decree upon the 4th of December, 1796, instituting at Paris, Montpellier, and Strasbourg, schools to be destined to the formation of medical officers (*officiers de Santé*,) for the service of the civil, military, and naval hospitals of the Republic. In these schools were to be taught the organization and physical history of man, the symptoms and character of disease, remedies, and, in short, every thing connected with the proper and thorough knowledge of medicine and surgery. The committee of public instruction was to elect twelve Professors for Paris, eight for Montpellier, and six for Strasbourg, who were all to have assistants, to prevent any interruption of teaching in case of illness. From each district of the Republic a citizen between seventeen and twenty-six years of age was to be chosen. Three hundred of these citizens were destined for the school of Paris, a hundred and fifty for that of Montpellier, and a hundred for

that of Strasbourg. They were to be chosen, according to their characters and proficiency, by two medical officers, (*officiers de Santé*) named by the commission of health in each capital of a district, and were to be at their respective destinations by the 1st of *Pluviose* next,—their travelling expenses being defrayed. These *elèves* were divided into different classes, and, as they were thought qualified, the commission of health appointed them, according to circumstances, to serve either in the hospitals or in the army. When studying they had a certain annual sum (*pension*) from government, which lasted for the space of three years, and when any one quitted the school, his place was filled up by another chosen from the district to which he belonged.

Such is a slight outline of the decree of the National Convention. The plan adopted most certainly merited very considerable praise; but still it was by no means complete. The principal fault was the want of connexion between the component parts, and the deficiency of proper regulations, laws, and discipline. At the

same time, through its agency, undoubtedly, many young men were educated and grounded in their profession; the door, however, was still left open to empirics, who, not at all checked by this appearance of regular study, as the ancient forms of examination and reception were not revived, gained ground, and, it was evident, would do so till the revival of such examinations took place. Some attempts were made, by the formation of Medical Juries in the Departments, to repress so alarming an extension of empiricism; but this only opened a field to corruption and abuse, and, from the anarchy and confusion that existed, it was clear, that though much had been done to advance the study of medicine, much was yet to do.

The ill success of the new plan of public education in France was soon apparent, and it was evident that an improved organization was necessary. It was to be supposed, that the Convention, warned by experience, would now avoid the rocks on which it had formerly split; and certainly the system of 1802 was superior to that of 1794 in many respects; still, how-

ever, it was imperfect in the *ensemble*, though good in its parts.

A great deal of discussion took place in the National Assembly, when the plan was laid before it, on the 20th April, 1802, by Fourcroy, Rœderer, and Regnaud. When it is closely examined, its superiority over the former plans seems to be more in appearance than in reality, and it has defects that are not to be got over. At the time, however, it was extolled as one of the sublimest ideas that any government ever entertained or put into practice. Arnault, in speaking of it, says, "that, instructed by expe-"rience, the framers of this plan made it their "object to unite all the advantages of the two "preceding systems, whilst all their disadvan-"tages were avoided; more liberal than that of "the Universities, less prodigal than that of "the central schools, it fully answered all the "purposes desired, and fulfilled all the expec-"tations entertained of it. The four schools "composing it form the most perfect whole "that can be imagined. To this classification "of the schools, to this gradation in the course "of instruction, is joined an advantage which

" gives the characteristic of the system; it is " the *proportion* established between the num- " ber of the different schools, and of the *elèves* " called to fill them: it would be difficult to " propose one more just."

Such is the opinion of a Frenchman upon the new organization of the public instruction. The following is that of a German, who had paid a greater degree of attention than most of his contemporaries to this subject: it must be reckoned more impartial, and it is most decidedly opposed to that of Arnault. He declares that the new system 'possesses all the disadvantages of the old systems, and scarcely any of their advantages; that, far from satisfying general expectation, it is calculated in no degree to fulfil the intentions proposed by the government that formed it; that its character as a whole is as deficient as the distribution of the different parts; and that it is not easy to say which is to be most lamented, the numerous imperfections or positive vices that are to be discovered in it. The government, he continues, has done too much on one side and too little on the other. It has been economical where it ought to have been

liberal, and liberal where it ought to have been economical; it has rejected what other countries have so long followed with success; has omitted or refused to adopt what long experience had shewn to be proper, and adopted what France ought to have disavowed.*

The principal features of this system, which seems, on the one hand, to have been overrated, and on the other too much depreciated, were these. It was divided into Primary Schools, Secondary Schools, Lycea, and Special Schools. The Primary Schools were situated in the parishes (*communes*) under the jurisdiction of the municipal authorities, and their number was in proportion to the population. The master had a free dwelling-house, and the revenue consisted in the fees paid by the parents of the scholars. The municipal council might admit children *gratis* when the parents were in a state of absolute poverty; but the number of *gratis* admissions could never exceed one-fifth of the total number of scholars.

* Meiners, vol. IV.

In the secondary schools were taught the Latin and French languages, the first elements of history, geography, and mathematics; and any school, though under the management of a private person, teaching these branches of education, came under this head; new schools, however, could not be erected without the permission of government. These schools were placed under the jurisdiction of the Prefect.

In the third order of schools, or *Lycea*, were taught the ancient languages, rhetoric, logic, and morals, also the principles of mathematical and physical science. Each district having a tribunal of appeal, had at least one Lyceum, which could not have less than eight Professors. The students of Lycea consisted of young men, placed there directly by the government; of scholars from the secondary schools, who had undergone full examinations; of boarders, who paid their own expenses; and, lastly, of such as did not reside in the Lycea, but merely attended the lectures, and paid accordingly. Each Lyceum had a Provisor (*Proviseur*,) a Superintendent of Study (*Censeur d'etudes*,) and an of-

ficer to take charge of the affairs of the school (*un Procureur gerant les affaires de l'ecole:*) they were nominated by the First Consul, and formed the administrative council of the school. In every town containing a Lyceum there was established an office of administration (*Bureau d'administration*), the members of which were the Prefect of the department, the President of the tribunal of appeal, the government commissary of that tribunal, the government commissary at the criminal court, the Mayor and the Provisor (*Proviseur.*) This council met at least four times a year, but oftener when the Provisor thought it necessary. The First Consul named three superintendents, to make a yearly visit to all the Lycea of the republic, for the purpose of inquiring into the manner in which they were conducted. It was necessary that the office-bearers of the Lycea should be married, or have been married; and no female was permitted to reside within the circle of the students' residences.

When a vacancy presented itself among the teachers, the three superior government inspec-

tors proposed one candidate, and the council of administration another, one or other of whom was nominated by the First Consul. The three great office-bearers of the Lycea might be transferred, like the teachers, from one Lyceum to a superior. Demands to this effect were to be laid before the First Consul by the superior Inspectors.

The special schools, in which the highest branches of literature were taught, and in which the student completed his education, were placed under the jurisdiction of the Minister of the Interior; and when a vacancy occurred, the First Consul made a choice out of three candidates, proposed to him by a class of the institute, by the upper inspectors of studies, and by the teachers of the special school in which the vacancy occurred. The existing special schools were allowed to remain, and several new ones were formed; and one or more of these schools were attached to each Lyceum, and governed by its council of administration.

In each fortress of the republic also was established a special military school for five hun-

dred *elèves*, who were under military law. Two hundred of these were chosen out of the national *elèves* in the Lycea, the rest from the other schools, and they were admitted after a proper examination. The military special schools were under the jurisdiction of the Minister of War, who likewise had the nomination of the Professors.

The Republic maintained at its own expense six thousand four hundred *elèves* in the Lycea and special schools; of that number two thousand four hundred were children of parents who had served in the army, magistracy, or other government-appointments. It was necessary they should have attained the age of nine years, and be able to read and write. The other four thousand *elèves* were chosen from the secondary schools, after a proper examination; each department presenting a certain number in proportion to its relative population.

These *elèves* could not remain more than six years in the Lycea at the public charge. After completing their studies, they underwent an examination, and one-fifth of the number were

sent to the special schools, where they might be farther maintained for two or three years, at the public expense. The government retained the privilege of disposing of the *elèves* according to circumstances. The annual maintenance of each student came to 700 francs (L.28,) and the board paid by parents, whose children were not at the national charge, could not exceed this sum. The out-students, as they may be called, who merely attended the classes, paid a certain fee fixed by the Council of Administration.

All the buildings belonging to the Lycea were kept up at the public expense, and a sinking fund was to be formed from a part, not exceeding the twentieth, of the incomes of the teachers and administrators, to be applied to the purpose of pensioning off those who had served twenty years, or who, from particular circumstances, were rendered unable to discharge their functions.*

* Several laws were promulgated at various times to settle the nature and amount of pensions for retired members of the University; the following summary of these, given by M. Rendu, may not be uninteresting:—

Such is a short sketch of the plan proposed and adopted by the National Assembly for

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Tout fonctionnaire de l'Université, pouvant avoir droit à une pension de retraite, supporte une retenue annuelle du vingtième sur le traitement fixe affecté à la place qu'il occupe.

Trente ans de services non interrompus dans le corps enseignant donnent droit à la pension de retraite, et cette pension est egale aux trois cinquiemes du traitement fixe, dont a joui le pensionnaire pendant les trois dernieres années de son activité. Cette pension s'accroit d'un vingtieme du traitement pour chaque année de service au delà de trente ans, sans qu'elle puisse excéder le dernier traitement fixe. Dans tous les cas, le *maximum* ne peut exceder la somme de 5000 francs.

Tout membre de l'Université, agé de plus de 60 ans, ou qui, sans avoir atteint cet age, serait attaqué de quelque infirmité pendant l'exercise de ses fonctions, peut demander la pension de retraite, avant l'epoque fixée pour l'emeritat, pourvu qu'il ait au moins dix années effectives et entieres de service dans les fonctions qui donnent droit à la pension. Lorsque le motif de la retraite est jugé legitime par le conseil royal d'instruction publique; la pension est reglée d'apres les bases suivantes, et toujours à raison du traitement fixe dont le pensionnaire aura joui pendant les trois dernieres années de son activité.

De 10 à 15 ans de service, deux dixiemes.
De 15 à 25 ans, trois dixiemes.
De 20 à 25 ans, quatre dixiemes.
De 25 à 30 ans, cinq dixiemes.

regulating the course of public instruction throughout France. The chief difference between it and the former plan consists in the substitution of Lycea for central schools. Instead of a hundred of the latter, which it was proposed to establish, there were to be thirty of the former,—a number, however, exceeding the number of central schools that were actually established. The most striking feature of this plan is,—what certainly was not to have been expected from a government that gave out liberty and equality as the objects of its worship,—the immense advantage given to the rich over the poorer classes of the people. Sixty-four hundred government-places were distributed to those who, after full trials, were found, from their qualifications and proficiency, deserving of them. But the primary and second-

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Dans tous les cas, le minimum de la pension est fixé à 500 francs.

Les pensions de retraite données par l'Université ne peuvent etre cumulées avec des traitemens attachés à une fonction dans l'Université même; elles peuvent être cumulées avec d'autres fonctions publiques hors de l'Université.

ary schools were not maintained at the public expense; and, in consequence, it is evident that many parents from poverty were unable to send their children to obtain an education that might have entitled them to aspire to government-pensions. The indigent class, therefore, which might have produced able and distinguished characters, laboured under a great disadvantage; while those, whose natural talents, perhaps, were far inferior, were enabled to advance in their career of success from possessing the means of obtaining a complete education. Many philanthropic Frenchmen were aware of this, and bewailed that the millions expended upon the Lycea had not been applied to the payment of teachers in the primary schools, instead of being, as they deemed it, a source of favour, interest, corruption, and abuse.

While the higher schools were kept up by government, the inferior or people's schools were allowed to increase or diminish according to the abilities or inclination of individuals; for, as the expense of maintenance was at the charge of the scholars, when the poverty of a

village prevented a good attendance, the school necessarily fell rapidly to decay. Government was startled at the enormous sum that would have been requisite to support a number of schools proportioned to the population of such a country as France, and the commissioners defended the superiority of their plan, and endeavoured to repel all objections to it by repeating the axiom of Smith, that education is always better conducted, teachers better chosen, and emulation greatest, when the institutions of instruction depend on the good opinion entertained of them by the public, than when they are subjected to the variable and uncertain jurisdiction of government. But this is an argument as applicable to the higher as to the inferior schools; and, where it is deemed impossible that government should charge itself with the maintenance of the latter, it does not appear that there is any good reason for supposing it necessary or just that it should maintain the former.

It has already been stated, that the medical schools were almost alone benefited by the re-

gulations formerly adopted by the National Convention. But it has also been remarked, that, while the benefit obtained was evident, there remained yet much to be done to raise the study of medicine to that height of respectability to which it was entitled.

The barefaced *charlatanerie* of the numerous empirics who, without check or shame, practised in every quarter of the country, proved at once a disgrace to the profession and an injury to the interests of humanity. There was but one way of checking these encroachments on the respectability of the science, and that was the restoration of the old system of examination and admission. A proposal therefore to this effect was made to the legislature, and a decree was issued, on the 10th of March, 1803, forbidding any one to practise as a Physician, Surgeon, or *Officier de Santé*, without having been duly examined and received according to law; the Physicians and Surgeons by the special schools of medicine, the *Officiers de Santé* by qualified juries.

Certain regular fees and inscriptions were at

the same time imposed upon all students, except such as had been national *elèves* in the Lycea, who were admitted free of expense.

Persons having duly graduated as Physicians or Surgeons in the special schools, were entitled to practise in any part of the country: the *Officiers de Santé* could only establish themselves in the department where they had been examined.

Any person practising as a Physician, and taking the title when not legally qualified, was subject to a fine not exceeding 1000 francs (L.40), or, if he practised under the title of *Officier de Santé*, to a fine of 500 francs (L.20). Any woman practising illicitly as a midwife was subject to a fine of 100 francs (L.4). All these fines, upon repetition of the offence, to be doubled, or accompanied by imprisonment for a period not exceeding six months.

By an act of the 6th October, 1803, the salary of Professor in a school of medicine was fixed at 3000 francs (L.120), and the following sums were granted to the medical schools for extra expenses:—

	Francs.	
Paris, - -	40,000	(L.1600)
Montpellier, -	30,000	(L.1200)
Strasbourg, - -	20,000	(L.800)

The good effects of these laws were soon obvious. The medical profession rose once more to a high rank of respectability, and empiricism disappeared, as this act of legislation rendered any attempt of its advocates to foster it futile and unavailing.

Public instruction having been thus organized, no further change was contemplated. Those who managed the affairs of the nation were satisfied, while those not in power had little to say upon the subject. But in a short time a new face was given to the government. A monarchy had been destroyed, the experiment of a republic had failed, and an empire was established to be equally soon crushed. If the Republic shewed a wish to avoid every thing bearing resemblance to a royal institution, the empire shewed no less dislike to every thing republican; and already, in the month of May, 1806, a proposal was brought forward, and a law

passed, to create an Imperial University. This law was put in force on the 17th of March, 1808, and determined the future organization of this body. When the royal authority was once more established, the University changed its title from Imperial to Royal; it suffered little alteration, however, in its internal organization. With the exception of a few partial modifications, its constitution remained the same; and, in the following account of its present state, it may be seen that the decrees of the Imperial Government have in most cases been ratified by royal authority. As it is now constituted, the public instruction throughout the whole kingdom is exclusively confided to the Royal University of France, which has the charge of the education of the people in all its branches, and forms a body ramifying over the whole country, and subject only to the jurisdiction of a council residing in Paris, and named the Royal Council of Public Instruction. It exercises a special jurisdiction over its own members, who are by oath held bound to sustain its privileges and support its honour, and

who cannot accept any other office without the sanction and permission of the royal council. No establishments for education, except those connected with the public service, can exist in France unconnected with or independent of the University; every school where any number of children are met together for the purpose of receiving instruction is subject to its statutes; and no one can open a school or seminary of education without being a member of the University, and holding a degree of one of its Faculties.*

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* Extrait du Decret portant organisation de l'Université Imperiale.

Du 17 Mars 1808.

Titre Premier.

Organisation générale de l'Université.

Art. 1*er.* L'enseignement public dans tout l'empire est confié exclusivement à l'Université.

2. Aucune Ecole, aucun etablissement quelconque d'instruction, ne peut etre formé hors de l'Université, et sans l'autorisation de son chef.

3. Nul ne peut ouvrir d'école, ni enseigner publiquement, sans etre membre de l'Université et gradué par l'une de ses Facultés.

4. L'Université sera composée d'autant d'académies qu'il y a de cours d'appel (cours royales).

The University of France is composed of twenty-six academies, answering to the Courts of Appeal or Royal Courts. They are the following:—

Aix.—Mouths of the Rhone, Low Alps, Var, Corsica.
Amiens.—Somme, Aisne, Oise.
Angers.—Maine & Loire, Sarthe, Mayenne.
Besançon.—Doubs, Haute Saone, Jura.
Bordeaux.—Gironde, Dordogne, Charente.
Bourges.—Cher, Indre, Nievre.
Caen.—Calvados, Orne, Manche.
Cahors.—Lot, Lot & Garonne, Gers.
Clermont.—Puy de Dome, Allier, Cantal, Haute Loire.
Dijon.—Cote d'Or, Saone & Loire, Haute Marne.
Douai.—Nord, Pas de Calais.
Grenoble.—Isere, Drome, High Alps.
Limoges.—Haute Vienne, Creuse, Correze.
Lyon.—Rhone, Ain, Loire.
Metz.—Moselle, Ardennes.
Montpellier.—Herault, Aveyron, Aude, Eastern Pyrenees.
Nanci.—Meurthe, Meuse, Vosges.

'5. Les écoles appartenant à chaque académie seront placées dan l'ordre suivant:

1*mo*, Les Facultés pour les sciences approfondies et la collation des grades, &c. &c.

Nismes.—Gard, Vaucluse, Ardeche, Lozere.

Orleans.—Loiret, Indre & Loire, Loire & Cher.

Paris.—Seine, Seine & Oise, Seine & Marne, Aube, Yonne, Marne, Eure & Loire.

Pau.—Low Pyrenees, High Pyrenees, Landes.

Poitiers.—Vienne, Deux Sevres, Vendée, Charente inferieure.

Rennes.—Ille & Villaine, Çotes-du-Nord, Finisterre, Morbihan, Loire Inferieure.

Rouen.—Seine Inferieure, Eure.

Strasbourg.—Bas-Rhin, Haut-Rhin.

Toulouse.—Haute Garonne, Ariége, Tarn, Tarn & Garonne.

The gradation of instruction renders the following classification of schools necessary :*—

* To persons accustomed to identify the term University with a single establishment of instruction, such as that of Edinburgh, the term University of France may appear somewhat vague or strange ; it may therefore be proper to explain more fully the whole meaning of the expression. The system of public instruction in France, as at present constituted, forms one vast body, which, like the military system of the country, has its head-quarters, if the term may be employed, in the capital, under the jurisdiction of a minister secretary of state, and his council. Though the University of France, therefore, is said to sit in Paris, it is evident that the expression means nothing more than that the supreme council, which is to take cognisance of

1*st*, Faculties which are the highest order, and destined particularly to the teaching of science and literature in their deepest branches. These alone can confer the highest academic honours: they are divided, since the decree of 1806, into five orders,—Theology, Law, Medicine, Sciences, and Letters.

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every thing connected with the details of its administration, holds its sittings there.

As has been stated, unlike other Universities, that of France includes every sort of establishment of instruction, (except the special schools, and schools for the public service,) from the higher Faculties down to the elementary schools. Its great division, however, is into academies; and here also a little farther explanation may be necessary. These academies are situated in Paris and the other great towns of France; but it must not be supposed, because in the academy of Paris every branch of study is taught, and all the five Faculties exist, that it is the same with those of the provinces. The word academy is a general denomination, but the composition of academies varies very much. They may include every form of school, as in Paris and Strasbourg, where there are Faculties of Theology, Law, Medicine, Sciences, and Letters, besides Colleges and Institutions of every kind. They may contain only one or two of these Faculties, as in Aix, where there exist merely those of Theology and Law; and, finally, they may consist of Colleges and inferior schools, without any Faculties at all, as in Cahors, Clermont, and several other towns.

2d, Colleges, in which are taught the elements of the study of letters, history, philosophy, the mathematical and physical sciences. They are divided into three orders,—Royal, Communal, and Private Colleges.

3d, Institutions and Boarding-houses (*pensions*) kept by private individuals.

4th, Primary schools, in which are taught reading, writing, the elements of arithmetic, of the French language, geography, drawing, and vocal music. They are divided into schools of the *1st*, *2d*, and *3d* order, according as the instruction is more or less advanced.

By an *ordonnance* of June, 1822, Louis greatly extended the power of the Grand Master of the University, which high office was given to his almoner, the Abbé Frayssinous. He was subsequently elevated to the still higher office of Minister Secretary of State for the department of ecclesiastical affairs and public instruction. At present this ministry and its duties, as respect the University, may be stated as follows:—

Head of the University of France,
The Minister of Ecclesiastical Affairs, and of Public Instruction, and who is *ex officio* President of the Royal Council.

Royal Council of Public Instruction, consisting of eight members, besides the President, nominated by the King. It meets at regular intervals, to take the affairs of the University into consideration, and bears the same rank in the state as the courts of cassation and of accounts, immediately after the latter of which, it takes place in public ceremonies.

The affairs of the University come under two great heads or sections, each having a President, and subdivided into several subsections.

The one section embraces all that concerns regulations, appointments, and discipline.

The other embraces the *Personel* and administration. The former is divided into four *Bureaux*, each having a particular class of duties to perform.

The 1*st Bureau* is charged with the nomination of functionaries of academies and mem-

bers of councils, with the power of granting *authorisations* to open institutions and boarding-houses for education, and with the management of affairs relative to Catholic Theology, and to the Christian and primary schools.

The *2d Bureau* is charged with the internal police of the Faculties of Law, Medicine, Sciences, and Letters; with the appointments of Professors and their assistants to these Faculties; with all that concerns the course of study, and the granting of diplomas, and with the discipline of the secondary medical schools.

The *3d Bureau* is charged with the nomination and installation of persons as teachers or administrators in the Royal Colleges; with the regulations and internal discipline of these Colleges; with the regulation of the salaries and pensions of those employed in them, and with the distribution of bursaries.

The *4th Bureau* is charged with the same duties as respecting the Communal Colleges.

The second great section of University affairs is divided into three *Bureaux*.

The *1st Bureau* is charged with keeping the

great book of accounts, (*en double partie*), and with the general journal of University expenses; with the examination of the books of other *Bureaux*, with the correspondence with the royal treasury, and with the arrangements of the accounts and budget of the University.

The 2*d Bureau* is charged with the *materiel* of the academies and Faculties, with the regulation of their expenses, and the expenses of the Inspectors General, of the Rector and Inspectors of academies; with the keeping of the books relative to these subjects, and with the administration of the University domains.

The 3*d Bureau* is charged with the fixed and fluctuating expenses of the Royal Colleges; with the distribution of their funds, and the examination and regulation of their running expenses; with the nomination and securities of House-stewards, (*œconomes*), with the books relative to current expenses; and, lastly, with the regulation of the internal expense of the ministry.

The University has also a Treasurer, and several Law-officers, for the keeping of its archives.

The office-bearers of the University are, according to their rank, as follows:—

For the Administration.

The President and Counsellors of Public Instruction,
The Inspectors General of the University,
Rectors of Academies,
Inspectors of particular Academies,
Deans of Faculties,
Provisors and Censors of Royal Colleges,
Principals of Communal Colleges,
Directors of Private Colleges,
Heads of Institutions, and Masters of Boarding-houses.

For Teaching.

Professors of Faculties,
Almoners of Royal Colleges,
Professors and Joint-Professors of ditto, (*Prof. agregés,*)
Almoners and Regents of Communal Colleges,
Masters of Study, (*Maitres d'etudes.*)

All these functionaries must possess a degree corresponding to their rank from one or other Faculty. They are divided into three classes.

1*st*, Into *titular office-bearers of the University*, who are the President and members of the Royal Council.

2*d*, Into *office-bearers of the University*, who

are the Inspectors General, Rectors, Inspectors of Academies, Deans, and Professors of Faculties.

3d, Into *office-bearers of Academies*, who are the Provisors (*Proviseurs*), Censors, and Almoners of Royal Colleges, Professors of the first four classes, Principals of Communal Colleges, and Directors of private Colleges.

The other functionaries merely have the title of Members of the University.

All office-bearers of the University are entitled, after a certain period of service, to retire with a pension granted by the Royal Council.

The duties of the Royal Council of public instruction embrace a very extended range. Being the Supreme Council of the University, every change that takes place in any branch of the public establishments for education must receive its approbation, and no promotion can be made without its express permission. No diploma granted by a Faculty is valid without the ratification of the Royal Council, and no seminary for the instruction of youth can be established without its sanction: it examines

books, to decide what are proper to be put into the hands of students, or be placed in the libraries of the University; and, lastly, it makes a regular annual report to government upon the condition and progress of public instruction throughout the kingdom.

The Inspectors General of the University are charged with all that concerns the internal economy and regulations of the Academies. Their duties consist in visiting them regularly, and seeing that they are properly administered. They are sixteen in number, divided into five orders,

Two for the Faculties of Theology,
Two for those of Law,
Two for those of Medicine,
Nine for those of Sciences and Letters,
One charged especially with all that concerns the Administration of the Academy of Paris.

The duties of these Inspectors are most important, and the powers with which they are invested for the purpose of obtaining what information they may desire are very considerable.

They can summon a meeting of the Council or Administration of an Academy, and demand from the members a full account of their proceedings; they are entitled to seek an explanation of any infringement or apparent infringement of statutes, and to propose any amelioration they may deem advisable. They make particular inquiries into the proficiency of the students and into the propriety of their behaviour; ascertain if the examinations for degrees be sufficiently strict; watch over the general discipline and internal police of the Royal Colleges; and observe that the teachers and office-bearers fulfil their duties in a proper manner; that the buildings are kept in good repair; that food and clothing are duly provided, and that cleanliness and health are particularly attended to. Their duty does not stop here, but extends also to the Communal Colleges and even to the Primary Schools. At their return from each inspection they must lay before the Royal Council, a full account of their mission, and, during the course of the year, they are expected

to give any advice, that may appear proper, respecting the affairs, administration, or improvement of the academies they have visited.

Every academy is governed by a Rector, chosen from among the office-bearers of the University. In the academy of Paris, which holds its sittings at the ancient College of the Sorbonne, the Rector is named by the King, and is, *ex officio*, Counsellor to the Royal Council of Instruction. The office of Rector lasts for the space of five years; but he may be re-elected. Every Rector has a Council of Inspectors, whose duties consist in visiting the colleges and other establishments of education. They perform, on a limited scale, the same offices as the Inspectors-general on the great scale. The Rector may suspend them from office; but in this case he must give his reasons for so acting to the Royal Council. The Academic Council of the Rector must consist of at least ten members, nominated by the President of the Royal Council, on the presentation of the Rector, and chosen from those functionaries who are office-bearers of the University or Academies, or from

among the most eminent persons of the town in which the academy is placed. This council, which is convoked by the Rector, who presides in it, must meet twice a month, and oftener if necessary. Its jurisdiction extends over all the schools situated in the departments which the circle of the academy embraces; it regulates their internal economy, discipline, expenses, and administration; is judge between the students and the heads of the schools, receives the appeals of the former against any punishment inflicted on them for a real or supposed infringement of laws, and pronounces sentence of suspension upon those individuals who have been convicted of irregular or insubordinate behaviour, either within or without the walls of the school. During the month of July every year it receives the reports of Inspectors of Academies upon the state of primary instruction, and determines what teachers are deserving of the rewards given by the Academic Council.

One of the members of the Academic Council performs the duty of Secretary; and every quarter, a report is sent up to the Royal Coun-

cil, to be placed among the archives of the University.

The University of France is now composed of five orders of Faculties, to wit,

Faculties of Theology,
——— of Law,
——— of Medicine,
——— of Mathematical and Physical Sciences,
——— of Letters.

It does not necessarily happen that all these five orders of Faculties are to be met with in the same academy. This may occasionally be the case, but it is of rare occurrence, and an academy has seldom more than one, two, or three Faculties.

At the head of every Faculty is a Dean, chosen from among the Professors, and under the authority of the Rector. He convokes and presides over its meetings, which must take place at least once a month, but oftener if he deems it necessary. The Secretary, who is at the same time Treasurer and Keeper of the archives, conducts all the details of business; draws out papers; regulates the receipts and expenditure,

and keeps the accounts of the Faculties. From the responsibility of his office, he is required to furnish sufficient security for his management.

The Dean performs the same duties in the Faculty as the Rector does in the academy. He looks after its interests, and sees that all laws, statutes, and regulations, are duly observed.

The Professors of Faculties are chosen in the following manner:—Those of the Catholic Theological Faculties, on the presentation of the metropolitan bishop; those of the Protestant Theological Faculties on the presentation of the Presidents of the consistories; those of the Faculties of medicine, science, and letters, on the double presentation of the respective Faculties and of the academic council; lastly, those of the Faculty of Law, after a *concours*, the form of which is determined by the Royal Council.

In the tenth year of the Republic the nomination of the Professors was vested in the head of the government, and the choice was made from two presentations, the one by the first class of the institute, and the other by the school

in which the vacancy occurred. By the decree of the 17th of March, 1808, it was determined that the Professors should be named, for the first time, by the Grand Master of the University; but in future, on occasion of a vacancy, that they should be elected by *concours*;* each Faculty having certain forms determined by University statutes. In 1815, the King created a commission to exercise, under the authority of the Minister Secretary of State for the department of the interior, the powers formerly intrusted to the Grand Master and his council. By another *ordonnance* of 1818, the form of election by *concours* was abolished in all the Faculties, except those of law,—a proceeding which does not seem to have given satisfaction; but on what account it is not easy to say; for, of all modes of election, that by *concours* seems the least adapted to promote the prosperity of any establishment. It no doubt will always

* Election by *concours* means election by examination before qualified persons.

happen, when a candidate is proposed, and nominated upon presentation, that abuse will, to a certain extent, exist. Interest and favour will at times be of more weight than talents and knowledge, and he who can command the support of the higher powers may frequently exclude the humbler candidate from attaining the object of his wishes and ambition; but, whilst it cannot be denied, that many proofs do occur of an improper stretch of power in the nomination of an unqualified person to a situation he does not merit, it must also be allowed, that the voice of the public and the wish of supporting character will act sufficiently in preventing this abuse from being carried too far; and it is to be supposed that, in general, the Council of Instruction is too enlightened, and too anxious to obtain the good opinion of the country, to allow, in many cases, power to triumph over merit.

If there exist objections to the present form of election, there were undoubtedly much greater to the former, and it is not easy to con-

ceive a system more ruinous, and less beneficial to the interests of science, than that of the election of Professors by *concours*.

At first sight the objections do not strike, and nothing appears simpler and more unexceptionable than a system where those men only are elected who have, by trial before qualified persons, proved themselves able to support the dignity of the situation they wish to obtain. But is a good appearance at a public examination a proper criterion of a man's proficiency, or is it likely that men, already risen to an eminence in the literary world, and perhaps advanced in years, will risk a failure in that for which a young man just fresh from the schools may be much better qualified? Public examinations are at best but an imperfect test of abilities, and one man may, from a firmness and composure of mind, a ready mode of answering, and a confidence in his own good appearance, make a much better figure before a board of examinators, than a man with talents perhaps much superior, whose timid character, diffident or confused manner, and slowness of expression, ren-

der him almost totally unfit to answer the most insignificant question with precision and without embarrassment. It is a trying thing for a man whose reputation in the world is already established, to risk the loss of it by a confused appearance in a situation where all eyes are upon him, and where, of those who are his inferiors in point of years, he may find so many his superiors in answering questions, which, perhaps, from their very insignificance, he is unable to answer at the moment.

The mode of election by *concours* exists at the present time only in the Faculty of Law; in the others it is abolished.

The lectures given in the Faculties as well as all meetings for examination are public. Those persons who do not aspire to academic honours, or who do not inscribe, must have a ticket of entry, which is delivered to them *gratis*. The degrees granted by each Faculty are of three kinds, those of Bachelor, Licentiate, and Doctor. The Faculty of Law, in addition, can grant a simple certificate of capability. These degrees do not necessarily confer the rank

or title of member of the University, but they are requisite before this can be obtained. To procure a degree, the aspirant must pay the regular inscription, examination, and diploma fees, which vary in the different Faculties. A diploma is not valid without the signature of the Rector of the academy in which the Faculty sits, and the ratification of the Royal Council. The candidate's thesis cannot be printed or distributed without the *visa* of the Dean and *permission* of the Rector, and two copies of it must be forwarded to the Royal Council.

After a student has been examined in due form, the members of the Faculty determine in private upon his merits. If the result be favourable, it is put in writing and signed; if unfavourable, the candidate is remitted to his studies; and, in case of another examination, he is obliged to pay the graduation-fees anew.

A student, before obtaining any degree, must have made a certain number of inscriptions, each during the first fortnight of every quarter, after which the books are closed. The signature of the student is necessary to render this

inscription valid. No one can take an inscription in the Faculties of Theology, Law, and Medicine, without having attained the age of 16 years, and being possessed of a degree of Bachelor of Letters.* In the Faculty of Medi-

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* The reputation of the Universities of Scotland has long been deservedly high; their Professors, in general, distinguished for learning, zeal, and industry, shew themselves fully qualified for the task of instruction; yet an impression has for some time past gone abroad, that, in the higher branches of science at least, the courses of education are neither so complete nor so full as they ought to be, and as the rapid spread of intellectual knowledge would seem to demand. Upon this very interesting subject, Dr Thomson has lately addressed the Patrons of the University and the Royal Commissioners, chiefly with reference to the medical profession. He has, with much zeal and earnestness, pointed out what he considers defects in the present system of medical education, but which, he thinks, admit of easy remedy. He has, in an especial manner, dwelt upon the very deficient state of preparatory education in the great bulk of young men entering upon the study of medicine. Those who know from experience the justice of what Dr Thomson says, must cordially join in wishing the remedy could be effectually applied. It would be useless to enter into any detail of the paramount advantages to be expected from a superior elementary instruction in the present advanced state of learning, and in a country where the humblest mechanic can obtain an education that; till of late years, was confined to a very limited portion of the com-

cine a degree of Bachelor of Sciences is also necessary.

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munity. It is certainly a defect in the system of instruction, that men should be admitted to the highest literary honours in the power of Universities to bestow, without possessing those ordinary acquirements of literary and philosophical education which every person claiming the station of a gentleman ought to possess, whatever be his profession or ulterior views in life.

It is unnecessary to dwell upon the very superficial education too often observed in those who are entering upon the study of the learned professions; it is already sufficiently known, and it is only to be desired, that this acknowledged inferiority, when compared with the practice of continental schools, should be remedied as soon and as completely as possible. In France the regulations upon this point are very strict; for no student can possibly matriculate or take his inscriptions in any of the Faculties of Theology, Law, Medicine, and Science, without being at least Bachelor of Letters, and, in the Faculty of Medicine, also Bachelor of Sciences. Such being the system, he comes to the study of his profession under advantages which the great body of students in a Scottish University do not possess. To obtain a degree of Doctor of Medicine in this country, for instance, no previous course of study is required; no certificate of capacity is demanded; no inquiry into the attainments of the aspirant is ever made or thought of; the whole test of ability consists in one or two examinations at the *close* of his period of study; and how far these are a test of ability considerable doubts must always be entertained. In the mean time, all literary ac-

Upon presenting himself for inscription in these Faculties, the student must shew his re-

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quirements not exactly connected with the study in which he is engaged are allowed to languish or be overlooked.

It being allowed on all hands, then, that this deficiency in the system of preparatory education for the learned professions does exist, the great question comes to be, in what manner is the defect to be remedied? Is it to be remedied by rendering it compulsatory on students to follow a previous course of study, or ought a certain series of examination to be instituted, which every student must undergo before being permitted to matriculate? A previous fixed course of study, it is to be feared, could not easily be effected in this country, and indeed might be accounted a hardship, as it would oblige young men, who, perhaps, could but ill afford the expense, to make a longer stay in the large towns where the Universities are situated; while, in the minor towns, the public academies or schools could not always afford the means of fulfilling the conditions required. In France, where the previous literary courses necessary for obtaining a Bachelorship or Mastership of Letters are fixed, this is not the case; for, from the scholastic system of that country, the colleges are so generally distributed, that there is no town of any size which does not possess an establishment where a certain number of courses are given, and where, in consequence, the classes proposed by the University can be attended. In Great Britain, however, it is far otherwise. There are many excellent schools scattered over the country; but, being all private or independent, their courses of education depend solely on the will of their teachers or founders, and cannot

gister of birth. If he be a minor, the consent of his parents or guardians, and his diploma of

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be regulated by any decision of the higher Faculties. Such being the case then, some other means of bringing about the desired object ought to be adopted, and none appears better than a rigid examination into the literary acquirements of young men before allowing them to matriculate. In this way they have it in their power to follow their previous literary studies in the manner most convenient to themselves; it being only necessary, in this examination, to prove that they have followed them with such success and advantage as to entitle them to enter upon those studies, the practice of which is to form the after-business and occupation of their lives.

In the Universities of Italy and Germany, in general, the same attention is paid to preliminary education as in France, and in some it is very complete. In the Austro-Italian Universities, before a student can commence his studies for obtaining a degree of Doctor in the learned professions, he must follow a two-years' philosophical course, (*studio biennale filosofico,*) in which the classes are arranged as follows:—

First Year.

Religious Instruction,
Theoretical Philosophy,
Elementary Mathematics,
Latin Philology.

Second Year.

Religious Instruction,

Bachelor of Letters or Sciences; if his parents or guardians do not reside in the town, he must

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Moral Philosophy,
Theoretical and Experimental Physics,
Latin Philology.

(*Prospetto degli studii dell' Imp. R. Università di Padova.*)

In the University of Pisa a regular preliminary course of study is not demanded; but every student, before matriculating, must shew certificates of good behaviour, and give proofs of proficiency in the Latin language and in rhetoric. For this purpose he must appear on the 7th of November, before the Director, to undergo an examination upon his knowledge of these branches of science, by the Professors of Greek, Latin, Italian, Logic, and Metaphysics; after passing which, he is allowed to matriculate.*

In Geneva the regulations upon this point are also very precise; for instance, to be admitted to the study of law, a person must have followed preliminary studies in the Faculties of Belles Lettres and Philosophy; after which the academy gives him leave to matriculate. Upon the same principle, the title of Master of Arts, obtained in any foreign University, entitles its possessor at once to enter upon the study of law in Geneva.

That all these regulations concerning preliminary education are attended with great benefit cannot be denied. The more the mind of the student is opened before enter-

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* Otto's Reise, erster theil, s. 291.

be presented by some one domiciliated in it, who must enter his own name and address in a book kept for the purpose. Every Professor is obliged, by the regulations of the school, to call over the names of the students inscribed in his books twice a month. If any student answers for another, he loses the benefit of one inscription; if a student has failed to answer to his name twice in the course of three months, he must, if he has no good excuse, lose his inscription, as the Professor cannot give him a certificate of good attendance, which is absolutely necessary before he can inscribe himself. To render the inscriptions taken in one Faculty of service in another, they must be accompanied with certificates of good conduct from the Dean of Faculty, or chief of the school, approved by the Rector; and, in case of these certificates be-

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ing upon the regular study of his profession, the more capable will he be of acquiring a true knowledge and just conception both of its theory and practice; while, at the same time, he will be able to appreciate the full value of the instruction he receives when he comes to apply it to what, in his subsequent researches, he may himself observe.

ing refused, the student has the right of appeal to the Academic Council.*

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* *Ordonnance du Roi concernant les Facultés de Droit et de Medecine.*

Du 5 Juillet 1820.

Nous Louis, &c. avons ordonné et ordonnons ce qui suit.

Art. 1*er.* A compter du 1er Janvier 1821, nul ne pourra être admis à prendre sa premiere inscription dans les Facultés de Droit et de Medecine, s'il n'a obtenu le grade de Bachelier ès Lettres.

2. A compter du 1er Janvier 1822, nul ne sera admis à l'examen requis pour le grade de Bachelier ès Lettres, s'il n'a suivi, ou moins pendant un an, un cours de Philosophie dans un College Royal ou communal, ou dans une institution ou cet enseignement est autorisé.

3. A compter du 1er Janvier 1823, nul ne sera admis audit examen, s'il n'a suivi, au moins pendant un an, un cours de Rhetorique, et, pendant une autre année, un cours de Philosophie, dans l'un desdits colleges ou institutions.

4. A compter du 1er Janvier 1824, nul ne sera admis à s'inscrire dans les Facultés de Medecine, s'il n'a obtenu le grade de Bachelier ès sciences, &c.

5. A compter du 1er Novembre prochain tout etudiant qui se présentera pour prendre sa premiere inscription dans une Faculté ou dans une ecole secondaire de Medecine sera tenu de deposer.

1*mo.* Son acte de Naissance.

2*do.* S'il est mineur, le consentement de ses parens ou tuteur.

3*tio.* Le Diplome exigé par les articles précédens

Every Professor of a Faculty has a fixed salary of 3000 francs (L.120,) and receives, besides,

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Art. 11. Tout Professeur de Faculté, &c. est tenu de faire, au moins deux fois par mois, l'appel des etudiants inscrits, et qui doivent suivre son cours, en vertu des Reglemens. Si le nombre est trop considerable, &c. . .

12. Les Doyens et les chefs des ecoles sont tenus de veiller de tems en tems par eux-mêmes a l'execution de l'article précédent . . . .

13. Tout Etudiant convaincu d'avoir repondu pour un autre, perdra une inscription.

14. Tout Etudiant qui aura manqué à l'appel deux fois dans un trimestre et dans le même cours, sans excuse valable et legitime, ne pourra recevoir de certificat d'assiduité du Professeur dudit cours.

15. Il ne sera delivré de certificat d'inscription que pour les trimestres ou les etudians auront obtenu des certificats d'assiduité pour tous les cours qu'ils devaient suivre pendant ce trimestre d'apres les Reglemens.

16. Nul ne sera admis à faire valoir dans une Faculté, &c. les Inscriptions prises dans une autre, s'il ne presente un certificat de bonne conduite delivré par le Doyen de la Faculté ou le chef de l'ecole secondaire d'où il sort, et approuvé par le Recteur.

21. Les sommes payées pour les Inscriptions seront rendues à ceux qui auront perdu ces inscriptions en vertu des articles ci-dessus.

Such are the principal features of the regulations established to ensure a good and regular attendance of the students; without being too severe, they are still sufficiently strict to have the desired effect, and it is only to be regret-

from examinations, inscription-fees and other sources, a sum, which varies according to circumstances. The Dean receives in addition a *precipuit*, the amount of which is determined by the Royal Council.

If the receipts of a Faculty exceed the expenditure, the surplus revenue is thrown into the general treasury of the University, to be applied to the advancement of public instruction.

In the order of Faculties, those of Theology come first, and are divided into two classes, Catholic and Protestant; the former connected with the metropolitan churches; the latter, which are two in number, situated, the one for

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ted that in the Universities of this country a similar system is not adopted. In many continental Universities, and particularly in Pisa, the Professors are by regulation obliged to give, at the commencement of each lecture, a summary of the preceding one, and to call upon their students to explain, publicly, different points of it. This has a most excellent effect not only in ensuring attention and good attendance, but also in imparting habits of study.—*Vid. Otto's Reise*, &c.

Lutherans at Strasbourg, the other for Calvinists at Montauban. Each Faculty of Theology has at least three Professors for Ecclesiastical History, Doctrinal Theology, (*Dógme*), and Evangelical Morals. There are frequently also chairs for the Hebrew tongue and for pulpit eloquence.

To obtain a degree of Bachelor in Theology, the aspirant must be twenty years of age, be a Bachelor of the Faculty of Letters, and have completed at least a three-years' curriculum in one of the Faculties. To obtain the degree of Licentiate, he must have been a Bachelor for at least one year, and must have defended two theses, one of which is in Latin. To obtain the degree of Doctor, he must defend a final and general thesis.

The decree of 1811 determines, that to become Professor or joint Professor (*agregé*) in a Faculty of Theology, a degree of Doctor is requisite; to become a Bishop, Vicar-general or Superior of a seminary of education, a degree of Licentiate; and to become a member of

chapter, curate, teacher in a seminary, or almoner of a school, the degree of a Bachelor.

The fees of examination in the Faculty of Theology are,

	Francs.	
For a right of Diploma, .	10.	(L.0 8 0)
For the degree of Bachelor, .	15	(L.0 12 0)
——— Licentiate, .	15	(L.0 12 0)
——— Doctor, .	50	(L.2 0 0)

The Faculties of Law have been very little changed in their organization since the decree of the 13th March, 1804: they are nine in number, and are situated in the towns of Paris, Strasbourg, Dijon, Grenoble, Aix, Tolouse, Poitiers, Rennes, and Caen.

To take an inscription in this Faculty, the student must have attained the age of sixteen years, and be possessed of a degree of Bachelor of Letters. The periods of study are, for a simple certificate of capacity, one year; for Bachelor and Licentiate three years; and for a Doctor four. During the first year the student must attend,

1. Natural Law, Law of Nations, General Law,

2. A first course of French Civil Law,
3. History of Roman and French Law.

During his second year,

1. Institutes of Roman Law,
2. Second course of French Civil Law,
3. Civil Procedure, (*Procédure Civile.*)

During his third year,

1. A third course of French Civil Law,
2. Commercial Law,
3. Administrative Law, (*Droit Administratif.*)

During his fourth year, which is necessary to obtain a degree of Doctor,

1. Institutes of Roman Law,
2. History of Law,
3. Administrative Law.*

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* Dans toutes les Facultés de Droit, les etudiants qui ne se proposent que d'obtenir le certificat de capacité necessaire pour exercer la profession d'avoué, suivent pendant une année le cours de procedure civile, et à leur choix, le cours de droit naturel ou le premier cours de code civil. Ils ne sont pas tenus de presenter un diplome de Bachelier ès-lettres pour etre admis à la Faculté; mais s'ils voulaient par la suite de prevaloir pour le baccalaureat en droit, de l'année d'etudes qu'ils auraient faite sans être bacheliers ès-lettres, ils devraient prouver, qu'ils avaient fait et completé avant le commencement de ladite année, les études en

Students, unless they have a sufficient excuse, must undergo their first examination at the close of their fourth inscription: they cannot take their seventh inscription in Paris, or their sixth in the departments, without having passed this examination.

Inscriptions are only valid when given at the expiration of each term, and accompanied by a certificate of attendance for that period. The examinators for conferring degrees are the Professors and their assistants: the inspectors general have the right of presence, and, if they deem it requisite, may themselves examine the candidate.*

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philosophie prescrite par les ordonnances, et reglements, et se pourvoir, en conséquence, par voie d'examen, dudit grade de bachelier és-lettres, avant de prendre leur cinquieme inscription.

* In the Lombardo-Venetian Universities the curriculum for the study of law is as follows:—

First Year.

Winter.—1. Encyclopedic introduction to the study of Law; Natural Private Law.

2. General Statistics of the States of Europe, and particularly of the Austrian Monarchy.

3. Agriculture (not obligatory).

Several candidates may be admitted to examination at the same time, but not exceeding eight. The examination must last one hour for one candidate, two hours for two, three

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Summer.—1. Natural Public Right; during the two last months, Criminal Law.
2. General Statistics.
3. Agriculture.

Second Year.

Winter.—1. Roman Law.
2. Ecclesiastical Law.

Summer.—1. Roman Law, and, during the two last months, Feudal Law.
2. Ecclesiastical Law.

Third Year.

Winter.—1. Universal Civil Law of Austria, and the difference between it and the Civil Law of France.
2. Mercantile Law.

Summer.—1. Civil Law of Austria, &c.
2. Maritime Law.

Fourth Year.

Winter.—1. Political Sciences.
2. Juridical Procedure, with Practical Exercises.

Summer.—Continuation of the winter courses.

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hours for four, and five hours for eight. The number of examinators whose presence is requisite to give a certificate of capacity is 2

A degree of Bachelor, - - 3
Do. Licentiate, - - 4
Do. Doctor, - - 5

The fees of inscription, graduation, and examination, in the Faculty of Law, are as follows:—

	Francs.			
Each inscription, - -	15	L.0	12	0
Examination-fee for certificate of capacity,	30	L.1	4	0
Do. Bachelor or Licentiate, for the first year, -	60	L.2	8	0
Do. Bachelor or Licentiate, second year, -	60	L.2	8	0
Do. Bachelor or Licentiate, third year, -	90	L.3	12	0
Do. for degree of Doctor, - -	90	L.3	12	0
The act of publicity for each, -	120	L.4	16	0
Fee for certificate of capacity, -	40	L.1	12	0
Do. diploma of Bachelor, - -	50	L.2	0	0
Do. do. Licentiate, - -	80	L.3	4	0
Do. do. Doctor, -	100	L.4	0	0
Dues for the *visa* and *ratification* of a degree of Bachelor, - -	36	L.1	8	10
Do. do. Licentiate, -	48	L.1	18	6
Do. do. Doctor, - -	48	L.1	18	6

Each Faculty of Law must have at least five

Professors and two assistants: the number may be increased at royal pleasure.

The school of law in the capital is, from its great importance, divided into two sections, in each of which there are three professors of civil law, one professor of the elements of natural law, the law of nations and public general law, one professor of the institutions of Roman law in relation to French, one professor of civil and criminal procedure, and of criminal law. In one of the sections there is a professor of commercial law; in the other, a professor for positive public law and French administrative law, a professor for the philosophical history of Roman and French law, and another for political economy.

The Faculties of Medicine of the University of France, which are situated at Paris, Montpellier, and Strasbourg, have suffered little change in their internal organization since the decree of 1803, at which period the ancient forms of examination and admission were revived. Besides the medical Faculties, there are several minor or secondary schools of medi-

cine, and several courts of medical instruction, connected with great hospitals, as in the towns of

Amiens,	Clermont-Ferrand
Angers,	Dijon,
Arras,	Grenoble,
Besançon,	Marseille,
Bordeaux,	Nantes,
Caen,	Poitiers.
Rheims,	

By an *ordonnance* of the 18th of May, 1820, these schools, as well as all the students attending them, were placed under the jurisdiction of the Royal Council, which was from that time forwards to regulate their discipline.*

In the medical profession, and in those branches of knowledge intimately connected with it in France, there may be reckoned six species of degrees :

Doctor of Medicine, } alone conferred by the Faculties.
Doctor of Surgery, }

Officier de Santé, conferred by a Faculty or by a Jury.

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* Ordonnance du Roi du 18 Mai 1820.

Midwife,	-	conferred by a Faculty or by a Jury.
Apothecary,	-	conferred by the schools of Pharmacy.
Apothecary,	-	conferred by a Jury.

Whoever has received the two first of these titles is qualified to practise in any part of the kingdom, after complying with certain necessary formalities; to hold the situation of sworn Physician or Surgeon to the Tribunals; to be chief officer of a civil hospital; and, lastly, to hold a commission from government to inquire into the state of public salubrity.

Candidates aspiring to the degree of Doctors must produce their register of birth, evidence of the consent of their parents or guardians, a diploma of Bachelor of Letters, and, since 1824, a diploma also of Bachelor of Sciences.

The laws respecting inscriptions are the same as in the Faculties of Law.

The curriculum for a full degree is four years, and the classes are disposed in the following order:*—

* The courses of medical study in several of the Italian Universities are as follows:—

1st Year. 1st, 2d, 3d, 4th Inscriptions.

- Winter,
  - Anatomy.
  - Physiology.
  - Chemistry.
- Summer,
  - Medical Philosophy or Hygiene.
  - External Pathology.
  - Botany.

In Padua, for a full degree of Doctor in Medicine or Surgery (having first completed a two-years' philosophical course:)—

1st Year.—Winter,
1. Introduction to the Study of Medicine and Surgery, and Human Anatomy.
2. Mineralogy and Geology.

——— Summer,
1. Continuation of Anatomy.
2. Zoology.
3. Botany.

2d Year.—Winter,
1. Higher Branches of Anatomy and Physiology.
2. General, Animal, and Pharmaceutical Chemistry.

——— Summer, Continuation of the same.

3d Year.—Winter,
1. General Pathology.
2. Introduction to the Study of Theory of Surgery.
3. Theory of Midwifery.
4. General Therapeutics and Materia Medica.

2d Year. 5th, 6th, 7th, 8th, Inscriptions.

- Winter,
  - Anatomy.
  - Physiology.
  - Practical Medicine, (*M. Operatoire.*)
- Summer,
  - Hygiene.
  - Pharmacy.
  - External Pathology.
  - External Clinics.

3d Year.—Summer,

1. Continuation of Pathology, Hygiene, &c.
2. Continuation of the Theory of Surgery.
3. From 15th May to the end of the scholastic year the Use of Surgical Instruments and Theory of Bandages.
4. Continuation of Mat. Med. Toxicology and Dietetics.

4th Year.—Winter,

1. Clinical Medicine.
2. Special Internal Therapeutics.
3. Clinical Surgery.
4. Surgical Operations.

——— Summer,

1. Continuation of Clinical Medicine.
2. Continuation of Internal Therapeutics.
3. The Veterinary Art, Theoretical and Practical.
4. Continuation of Clinical Surgery.
5. Special Surgical Therapeutics.

3d Year. 9th, 10th 11th, 12th Inscriptions.	Winter,	Practical Medicine, (*M. Operatoire.*)
		External Clinics.
	Summer,	Internal Pathology.
		Materia Medica.
		Internal Clinics.

5th Year.	Winter,	1. Clinical Medicine.
		2. Continuation of Internal Therapeutics.
		3. Medical Jurisprudence.
		4. Eye Clinics.
		5. Instruction for Recovery from apparent Death by Drowning, &c.
		6. Clinical Surgery.
		7. Surgical Operations.
———	Summer,	1. Clinical Medicine, Therapeutics, Eye Clinics, and Clinical Surgery, as in Winter.
		2. Medical Police.
		3. Special Surgical Therapeutics.
		4. Theory of Diseases of the Eye.

Doctors in Surgery, in addition to the above courses, must attend, at least two months, the practice of Midwifery in the Midwifery Clinics; after which they must perform two operations upon this branch of their art, and be rigorously examined.—*Prospetto degli studii dell. Imp. R. Università di Padova.*

In Pisa the Medical curriculum is as follows, (having passed a previous examination upon literary qualifications:)—

4th Year.	Winter,	Internal Clinics.
13th,		History of Medicine.
14th,	Summer,	Internal Pathology.
15th, 16th Inscriptions.		Legal Medicine.
		Clinique de Perfectionnement.
		Midwifery.

After completing this course of study, the candidate may enter upon his trials, which are five in number,

The 1st on Anatomy and Physiology.
2d — Pathology and Nosology.
3d — Materia Medica, Chemistry, and Pharmacy.

1st Year.—Anatomy and Physiology, Chemistry and Pharmacology, Botany, Geometry, and Arithmetic.
2d Year.—Anatomy and Physiology, Chemistry, and Pharmacology, Theory of Medicine, Institutions of Medicine, Practice of Medicine.
3d Year.—Theory of Medicine, Institutions of Medicine, Practice of Medicine, Clinical Medicine.
4th Year.—Clinical Medicine, Institutions of Surgery, and Operations on the Dead Subject.

In Bologna the medical curriculum is four years. The student, after proper examinations, becomes a *Bachelor* of Medicine at the close of the first year; *Licentiate* at the close of the second; and *Doctor* at the termination of the curriculum.—*Otto's Reise*, &c. s. 89.

4th on Hygiene and Medical Jurisprudence.
5th —Clinical Medicine or Surgery.

There must be present at these examinations at least three Professors; and two of the examinations must be in Latin. The candidate must after this defend, before five Professors, a thesis written in Latin or French.

The inscription and examination fees are,

For the first year's inscription,	100 frs.	L.4 0 0
For second do.	120	L.4 16 0
third do.	140	L.5 12 0
fourth do.	140	L.5 12 0
For the first examination,	60	L.2 8 0
For second do.	70	L.2 16 0
third do.	70	L.2 16 0
fourth do.	80	L.3 4 0
fifth do.	100	L.4 0 0
Thesis	120	L.4 16 0
Right of Visa,	100	L.4 0 0
Total.	1100 frs.	L.44 0 0

To obtain a degree of *Officier de Santé*, it is requisite to have followed a three-years' curriculum in a Faculty, to have been attached six years as an *clève* to a Doctor, or have walked the hospitals five years. This degree is confer-

red by a Jury, which sits in the capital of each department, and it is composed of two Doctors domiciliated there, and of a commissary; chosen from the Professors of the Faculties of Medicine, except in the towns where the Faculties are established, and then the Jury is entirely composed of Professors. This Jury is renewed every five years, but the members are re-eligible. The examinations for the admission of candidates take place only at one period of the year. They are public, in the French language.

The curriculum to be followed by a student aspiring to the title of *Officier de Santé* in a Faculty is,

1st Year. 1st, 2d,	Winter,	Anatomy.
		Physiology.
		Chemistry.
3d, 4th Inscriptions.	Summer,	Hygiene.
		External Pathology.
		Botany.
2d Year. 5th, 6th,	Winter,	Anatomy.
		Physiology.
		Practical Medicine, (*M. Operatoire.*)
7th, 8th Inscriptions.	Summer,	Materia Medica
		Pharmacy.
		External Clinics.

3d Year. 9th, 10th, 11th, 12th Inscriptions.	Winter,	Practical Medicine, (*M. Operatoire.*)
		Surgical Clinics.
	Summer,	Internal Pathology.
		Medical Clinics.
		Midwifery.*

If the aspirant has studied in an hospital for the space of five years, where lectures are given under the sanction of law, an attendance on the lectures of the Faculty Professors is not required.

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* In the Universities of Northern Italy there is also an inferior class of practitioners analogous to the *Officiers de Santé*, under the term of *Chirurgi Maggiori*, or *Maestri di Chirurgia*, and even a third class denominated *Chirurgi Minori, Chirurgi civili o Provinciali.* For the former of these the following is the curriculum after a proper course of preliminary study :—(*Compiuto il corso degli studii ginnasiali.*)

1st Year.—Winter,		Introduction to the Study of Surgery ; Theory of Surgery.
		Introduction to the Study of Medicine and Surgery ; Human Anatomy.
		Physiology, Pathology, and general Therapeutics.

Upon the secondary schools of medicine being put under the jurisdiction of the commis-

1st Year.—Summer,	Continuation of the Theory of Surgery, from the 15th of May to the end of the scholastic year, the Use of Instruments and Theory of Bandages.
	Continuation of Human Anatomy.
	Materia Medica and Chirurgica, Dietetics, &c.
2d Year. - -	Continuation of the Lectures of the preceding year.
3d Year.—Winter,	Medico-practical Instruction at the Patient's Bed-side.
	Special Internal Therapeutics.
	Clinical Surgery.
	Eye Clinics.
	Medical Jurisprudence.
	Instructions for the Recovery of Persons in a State of apparent Death from Drowning, &c.
——— Summer,	Continuation of Medico-practical Instruction.
	Continuation of Therapeutics.
	Continuation of Clinical Surgery.
	Special Surgical Therapeutics.
	Theory and Practice of Veterinary Medicine.
	Eye Clinics.
	Theory of Midwifery.

sion of public instruction in 1820, the Royal Council, on the 7th November of the same year, passed a decree regulating their future organization. Before a student can take an inscription in one of these schools, he must be examined by two functionaries of the University as to his proficiency in his own language, and in the principles of the Latin language and of arithmetic. If his appearance be satisfactory, he receives from the Rector an *authorisation* to inscribe himself. Should the secondary school be situated in a town where there is no academy, a functionary of the University is chosen by the Rector to discharge his functions, who receives the rank and title of Inspector of Academy. The office of Dean in the Fa-

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4th Year. - - Repetition of the Courses followed during the preceding year.
Also Clinical Midwifery for at least two months.

The *Chirurgi Minori* only require three years' study. The courses followed are the same as those of the first three years for the *Chirurgi Maggiori*, except that it is not obligatory to attend the eye clinics.—(*Prospetto degli studii dell' Imp. R. Universitá di Padova.*)

culties is supplied by that of Director in the secondary schools of medicine. If a student, after following the courses given in a secondary school, should wish to take the full degree of Doctor, he must give proof of having prosecuted those studies necessary to obtain a degree of Bachelor of Letters and of Bachelor of Sciences, which degrees he must possess before he can undergo his first examination. If, after attending a certain period in a secondary school, he wishes to complete his studies in a Faculty, he must present his certificates, and according to their number he receives a dispensation. The relative values of the studies in the two orders of schools, together with the period at which the student is allowed to take up his inscription, are regulated in the following table :—

Secondary School.		*Faculty.*
5 years, or 20 Inscriptions	=	12 Inscriptions.
4 . . 16 . . .	=	9 . . continue at 10th
3 . . 12 . . .	=	7 . . . . . 8th
2½ . . 10 . . .	=	6 . . . . . 7th
2 . . 8 . . .	=	5 . . . . . 6th
1½ . . 5 . . .	=	3 . . . . . 4th

To obtain the diploma of *Officier de Santé*, there are three examinations to be passed:

1st on Anatomy.
2d — Elements of Medicine.
3d — Surgery and Pharmacy.

The fees are,

Inscriptions for the first year, .	100 frs.	L.4	0 0
Do. for the second year,	120	L.4	16 0
Do. for third year, . .	140	L.5	12 0
Examination-fees, . . .	200	L.8	0 0
Right of *visa*, ...	50	L.2	0 0
Total,	610 frs.	L.24	8 0

In Paris the right of *visa* is 100 francs.

An *Officier de Santé* can establish himself in that department only where the jury that examined him sits. He must be duly registered by the civil authorities, and cannot perform the greater surgical operations, except under the eyes and direction of a Doctor of Surgery. Should he transgress this regulation, and the case turn out unsuccessfully, he may be sued at law by the aggrieved party for damages. It is much to be regretted that, while the framers of the existing code of the University of France

seem to have turned their attention to the good of humanity, and the advantages of the present and of future generations, they should have been so blinded as to admit into it a system replete with the most baneful consequences, not only to the respectability of the medical profession, but to the interests and welfare of mankind in general. The formation of a class of practitioners under the denomination of *Officiers de Santé*, however great the advantages might have appeared to the framers of the code, must undoubtedly have this tendency.

It is vain to say that they shall be excluded from performing the greater operations or obtaining respectable practice. They will do both, to the injury of the higher branches of the profession, until some glaring and repeated instances of unskilful and unsuccessful treatment check their progress, and open the eyes both of the legislature and of the public to the faults of the system.

The situation of *Officiers de Santé* must be exceedingly disagreeable to the individual himself, as the laws allow him to be sued for

damages in case of maltreatment. The fatal and unexpected issue of a case which, in the hands of a licensed Doctor, would be attributed merely to some unavoidable circumstance in its history, will be frequently, in the hands of an *Officier de Santé*, set down as an instance of maltreatment. Whenever a patient may feel any way dissatisfied with his attendant, or his malady, instead of disappearing, may be gaining ground, he will imagine that he is improperly treated. A want of confidence must be easily produced in his mind, from knowing, or at least supposing, that his medical attendant has not been thoroughly educated in his profession: under the care of a regularly-bred Physician or Surgeon his confidence cannot be shaken in the same way. During a long illness he may become weary of seeing the same man, and wish to see another, whose fame, perhaps, in the treatment of certain maladies has been widely diffused. Patients under the influence of pain and disease will always be chimerical and capricious in this respect, and it is natural they should. Still the Physician or Sur-

geon stands in a very different situation from the *Officier de Santé*. If the former is dismissed, it is still as a man who has done his duty, though perhaps not with success, and who is not looked upon, either by the patient himself, or by those who employ him, as in any way compromised in character, or less worthy of confidence; but the latter is dismissed, though perhaps with equally little real ground of complaint, as a person who had ventured to take charge of a disease which his imperfect medical education rendered him incapable of viewing in its proper light, and which, in consequence, he had unskilfully treated. A sudden change for the worse in the symptoms of a malady, the imperfect or unexpected action of a medicine, which, in ordinary cases, might be calculated to do good, though all arising from natural and unavoidable causes, will act to the prejudice of the attendant in the mind of the patient or of his friends, and render his situation at once painful and degrading. Should an *Officier de Santé* venture upon the treatment of a case which the full graduate is

alone accounted qualified to treat, or should at least superintend, and that case should turn out ill, he is exposed to a suit of damages; though, undoubtedly, this cannot be found fault with in the case of one interfering with what, upon taking his degree, he is aware he ought not, and declares he will not do, without proper assistance from the higher branches of the profession; yet it must be evident that here also there is much room for abuse. The opinion of qualified Doctors must be taken upon the question, whether the fatal issue resulted from positive maltreatment, or from natural and unavoidable causes? The Physician may have a certain degree of jealousy or enmity against his inferior brother in the profession; his character may be illiberal, and, though, perhaps, not wilfully inclined to distort facts, he may, through prejudice, not view them in their true colours; and this, together with the difficulty of ascertaining all the circumstances of the case, may produce a conviction in his mind that would be inimical to the defendant, and involve him in undeserved punishment.

The opinion here given as to the imperfection and mischief of a system which creates two classes of medical officers, differing in their respective qualifications, is not that of a single individual. In all the great schools of France, as well as in the schools of other countries, into which, through French influence, it has crept, the most liberal and enlightened men agree in deprecating it as replete with consequences the most hurtful and injurious to the medical science, as tending to degrade the profession, and in process of time, except for the few that may be obliged to take a Doctor's degree as a qualification for certain appointments, to banish the better-educated class of men altogether from private practice, and throw it all into the hands of an inferior class.*

In a late session of the Chamber of Deputies an attempt was made to do entirely away with the *Officier de Santé*, and the arguments ad-

* The illustrious Scarpa expresses his sentiments very strongly on this point, and laments that French influence introduced, and that Austrian influence continues to encourage, a system so replete with mischief.

vanced for the propriety of such a measure were most powerful and satisfactory. It did not, however, succeed, though it is to be hoped a similar motion may be brought forward with more success at a future period.

The ordinary midwifery practice in France is very much, indeed almost wholly, in the hands of females, who, as in the other branches of the medical profession, are obliged to attend a certain course of study, and undergo regular examinations. By the decree of March 1803, there were established in the best-frequented hospitals of each department, a set of annual and gratuitous lectures, theoretical and practical, on the art of midwifery. Before any one can enter upon her trials, she must have attended two of these courses, and have practised for at least six months in the hospital under the eyes of the Professor. The examinations are made by qualified juries upon the theory and practice of midwifery, the accidents that may precede, attend, or follow delivery, and the means of relief or cure. After a due examination, the candidate receives a gratuitous diplo-

ma, and is registered by the proper civil authorities.

But although the ordinary midwifery practice is in the hands of females, yet, in cases of difficult or dangerous labour, they dare not use instruments, but must call in a male practitioner.

The regulations, laws, and *ordonnances* respecting the practice of Pharmacy in France are very strict and particular, and deserve, in many points, great praise. That branch of police connected with the vending of drugs is conducted in the most complete and efficient manner, and goes far to prevent the occurrences of those disagreeable and sometimes fatal accidents which have arisen from want of attention, from mistake, and too often, it is to be feared, from crime.* In the towns of Paris, Montpel-

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* *Extract from the law of the* 21*st Germinal,* (11*th April,* 1803), *concerning the organization of the schools of Pharmacy.*

Titre IV.

Art. 23. Les Pharmaciens reçus dans une des trois ecoles

lier, and Strasbourg are established schools of Pharmacy, with the right of granting diplomas,

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de Pharmacie, pourront s'etablir et exercer leur profession dans toutes les parties du territoire Français.

24. Les Pharmaciens reçus par les jurys ne pourront s'etablir, que dans l'etendue du departement ou ils auront été reçus.

29. A Paris et dans les villes ou seront placées les nouvelles ecoles de Pharmacie, deux Docteurs et Professeurs des ecoles de Medecine, accompagnés des membres des écoles de Pharmacie, et assistés d'un commissaire de Police, visiteront, au moins une fois l'an, les officines et magasins des pharmaciens et droguistes, pour verifier la bonne qualité des drogues et medicamens simples et composés. . . . Les drogues mal préparées ou deteriorées seront saisies à l'instant par le commissaire de Police; et il sera procédé ensuite, conformement aux lois et reglemens actuellement existans.

32. Les pharmaciens ne pourront livrer et debiter des preparations médecinales ou drogues composées quelconques, que d'après la prescription qui en sera faite par des docteurs en médecine ou en chirurgie, ou par des Officiers de Santé, et sur leur signature. . . . .

35. Les pharmaciens et epiciers tiendront un registre coté et paraphé par le maire ou le commissaire de Police, sur lequel registre, ceux qui seront dans le cas d'acheter des substances vénéneuses, inscriront de suite et sans aucun blanc, leurs noms, qualités et demeures, la nature et la quantité des drogues qui leur ont été delivrées; l'emploi qu'ils se proposent d'en faire, et la date exacte du jour de

conferring the power of practising in any part of the kingdom, after complying with the usual formalities. These schools are composed of a Director, Treasurer, and three Professors, with assistants, (in Paris four Professors, each having an assistant,) and four courses are given every year.

1.—Botany,
2.—Natural History of Medicine,
3.—Chemistry,
4.—Pharmacy.

} may be taught by the same Professor.

The age of twenty-five, and eight years' attendance in a legally-established druggist's shop, or three years' attendance only, provided the candidate has followed the lectures given in the schools, are requisite to obtain a diploma. The examinations take place before the Professors of the school of Pharmacy, jointly with two Professors of the school of Medicine, and are three in number.

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leur achat; le tout à peine de 3000 francs d'amende contre les contrevenans, &c. &c.

1.—On the Principles of their Profession.
2.—Botany and Natural History of Drugs.
3.—Practical Knowledge.

The third examination lasts for four days, and consists of at least nine pharmaceutical and chemical processes, fixed upon by the examinators; the whole manipulation of which, together with the description of the materials employed, the rationale of the operations, and the nature of the results, are fully performed and explained by the candidate. The expense attending these operations is defrayed by the candidates; but it is restricted to a certain sum.

The fees are, for the

1st Examination,	. .	200 frs.	L. 8
2d Do.	. . .	200	L. 8
3d Do.	. . .	500	L.20
	Total,	900 frs.	L.36

The Professors of the school of Medicine and the Director of the school of Pharmacy receive each 10 francs (sh. 8) for every examination; Professors of the school of Pharmacy, if exami-

nators, 6 francs; if present, but not examinators, 3.*

As already mentioned, those persons who receive their diploma from a regular school of Pharmacy have the right of practising in any part of France. But there is still another class, the members of which, like the *Officier de Santé*, are examined by juries, and are only permitted to practise in the department where their examinations have taken place. The juries, which are changed every five years, con-

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* The regulations respecting apothecaries in Padua are as follows:—No one can enter upon the study of Pharmacy in the University without having practised for five years in quality of apprentice (*allievo*) to an established druggist. This must be proved by regular annual certificates *visa'd* by the local authorities. He must also have followed a preliminary course of education, (*compiuto il corso degli studii ginnasiali,*) after which the classes he has to attend in the University are

One year of Study.
- Winter,
  - Mineralogy and Geognosy.
  - General, Animal, and Pharmaceutical Chemistry.
- Summer,
  - Botany, Zoology.
  - Continuation of Chemistry, as in winter.

sist of two Physicians or Surgeons, and four Apothecaries (*Pharmaciens*), nominated by the Prefect of the department. The nature and number of examinations are the same as in the regular schools of Pharmacy, but the fees are considerably less, amounting in all to not more than 200 francs (L.8).*

The Faculty of Medicine of Paris is established in the *Ecole de Medecine* (*Rue de l'ecole de Medecine, Faubourg St Germain*), a build-

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* To ensure good attendance in the schools of Pharmacy, the following regulations are enjoined in the arrêté of the 25th Thermidor an 11 (13th August, 1803.)

Art. 18. Les élèves qui suivront les cours seront tenus de s'inscrire au bureau d'administration de l'ecole, &c.

19. A la fin des cours, il sera delivré des certificats d'études aux élèves qui les auront suivis, les certificats ne seront accordés que sur l'attestation du Professeur qui prouvera l'assiduité de l'élève aux leçons.

20. Pour constater l'assiduité des élèves qui suivront les cours, chaque Professeur aura une feuille de presence, sur laquelle les élèves s'inscriront à chaque séance; il sera fait en outre, un appel au moins une fois par semaine.

21. Le relevé des feuilles, fait à la fin des cours, constatera l'assiduité des élèves, auxquels il ne pourra etre delivré de certificats, qu'autant que, par des raisons legitimes, ils ne se seront pas absentés plus de six fois.

ing of modern date, and deserving of much admiration. Its architect was Goudouin, and it was completed about the commencement of the reign of Louis XVI. Without being in any way loaded with ornament, and though of small dimensions, it forms a whole of extreme beauty and simplicity, admirable not less for its internal disposition than for its external architecture. It is a square, enclosing a court of nearly 100 feet by 70, the façade towards the street being nearly 200 feet in length, and the two wings joined by a Peristyle consisting of four rows of Ionic columns.

The building, at the bottom of the court, has a handsome façade or pediment of six rich Corinthian pillars of rather larger dimensions. It contains the great amphitheatre, which is exceedingly fine, and capable of holding more than 1200 persons. Upon the wall, opposite the president's chair, is this inscription :—

Ad cædes hominum prisca amphitheatra patebant;
Ut longum discant vivere nostra patent.

The rest of the building is laid out in lecture-

rooms, library, and museum; the last of which, it must be confessed, is hardly worthy of the greatness of the school. The library and museum are open for the instruction of the students, and on certain days for the inspection and curiosity of the public.

The other buildings for teaching those branches of study connected with the medical profession are situated nearly opposite the *Ecole de Medecine* in the *Rue de l'observance.* These consist principally of the *Hospice de Perfectionnement* or *de l'Ecole de Medicine,* and of the dissecting-rooms, which are situated behind it, and which are exceedingly well adapted for their purpose. They form several distinct buildings, each capable of containing a considerable number of tables, and supplied with all that is necessary to the prosecution of the art of dissection. The whole range of these buildings forms what is termed the Practical School,—an establishment not only of the highest importance from what is taught in it, but as being, it may be said, a nursery in which some of the

most illustrious professors of the school of medicine have obtained that complete practical knowledge which they have afterwards turned to the good of their country. The number of *elèves* attached to the practical school is forty, and they are admitted after a *concours*, which takes place every year in the month of November. These *elèves* are divided into three classes, and they pass from one class to another, also by *concours*: they have a free and gratis admission to all the establishments connected with the medical school, and, in case of a scarcity of subjects for dissection, have the preference. Such a scarcity, however, very rarely happens, and, in general, the facilities of obtaining bodies are too great in Paris,—the overabundance often having the effect of producing a careless and slovenly habit of dissection.

The students engaged in the study of practical anatomy are superintended by a *Chef des travaux anatomiques*, and by several *Prosecteurs et aides d'Anatomie*. The first of these is a very important situation, and has been filled

by many of the most celebrated men in Paris. It ranks next to a professorship, and is, in most cases, but a step to a higher situation. The offices of *Prosecteur et aide d'Anatomie* last for three years, and, when a vacancy occurs, the election of a new officer is made by *concours* from among the *clèves* of the practical school.

The medical courses given in Paris are both public and private. The public are delivered by the Professors of the Faculty, and are divided into winter and summer *semestres*; the former commencing in the beginning of November, and finishing in the beginning of April; the latter commencing when the former terminate, and continuing till the end of August, when there is a recess. Before the opening of the courses of each year, the Professors of the Faculty publish a *programme*, fixing the extent and hours of lecturing, and determining how many days in the week lectures should be given.

Unless prevented by illness or some other unavoidable cause, every Professor must deliver

his own lectures; and, when unable, his place is supplied by the *agregé.**

Besides the public lectures delivered in the Faculty of Medicine, there are many distinguished men who give private courses on medical subjects in buildings adjoining to the School of Medicine. These courses are often very well attended, though an attendance on them bears no value in taking a degree of the Faculty. The lecturers must be *agregés*, must have an *authorisation* to lecture from the Grand Master of the University, and must not, in any way, interfere with the hours of lecturing of the professors. The usual fee is a guinea; and the situation of *agregé*, or private lecturer, may be deemed a step to a professorship, and at the same time a field in which a young man may shew his talents in teaching, and prepare the way to a higher situation, in a more public capacity, in one of the great schools of the kingdom.

On the 18th of November, 1822, some dis-

* Adjunct or Assistant Professor.

turbances took place in the Faculty of Medicine of Paris, whether from the fault of the teacher or scholars, or both, it is not easy to say. Perhaps the students had received a certain degree of provocation, and in the heat of the moment conducted themselves intemperately. But whatever might have been the origin of the disturbance, government took the vigorous and unexpected measure of suppressing the Faculty of Medicine altogether.* This

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* Ordonnance, &c.

Le 21 Novembre 1822.

Louis, &c.

Considerant que des désordres scandaleux ont eclaté dans la séance solennelle de la Faculté de Medecine de Paris, du 18 du mois de Novembre 1822, et que ce n'est pas la première fois que les etudians de cette ecole ont été entraînés à des mouvemens qui peuvent devenir dangereux pour l'ordre public . . . .

Sur le rapport de nôtre ministre secretaire d'etat au departement de l'interiéur,

Nous avons ordonné et ordonnons ce qui suit:

Art. 1er. La Faculté de Medecine de Paris est supprimée.

2. Notre Ministre de l'interieur nous presentera un plan de reorganisation de la Faculté de Medecine de Paris.

was a severe blow to the academy, and was felt in no slight degree by every class of persons. Upon this suppression, the inscription-fees were returned to the students, who, upon shewing proper certificates of good conduct, received authority from the Grand Master to resume them in the Faculties of Strasbourg or Montpellier, or, if they preferred it, in some one of the secondary schools. The dispersion for the time in Paris was most complete; and the schools of Strasbourg and Montpellier, upon this occasion, saw their numbers swelled by many additional students, who were anxious to lose no time in the prosecution of their studies. Many reports were spread as to the intention of government respecting the re-establishment of this important school. It was said by some, that it was in contemplation to remove it from

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3. Le montant de l'inscription du premier trimestre sera rendu aux etudians, et le Grand Maitre pourra autoriser ceux d'entre eux sur lesquels il aura recueilli des renseignemens favorables, à reprendre cette inscription, soit dans les Facultés de Strasbourg et de Montpellier, soit dans les ecoles secondaires de Medecine.

Paris to one of the neighbouring towns, such as St Germains,—a plan that would have been attended with the most injurious consequences, by separating what might be termed the theoretical branches of the science from the practical: the latter of which can only be studied with advantage in a great city. But the storm blew over, and government, whatever might have been its first intentions, did not persevere in its system of severity, but, on the 2d of February, 1823, issued a royal *ordonnance*, re-establishing the Faculty of Medicine of Paris, and reorganizing it on a footing differing in some respects from what it had been before. By this *ordonnance*, the Faculty was composed of 23 Professors, and the chairs were distributed as follows :—

1. Anatomy.
2. Physiology.
3. Medical Chemistry.
4. Medical Physics.
5. Medical Natural History.
6. Pharmacology.
7. Hygiene..
8. Surgical Pathology (two Professors.)

9. Medical Pathology (two Professors.)
10. Operations and Surgical Apparatus, &c.
11. Therapeutics and Materia Medica.
12. Legal Medicine.
13. Midwifery and Diseases of Women and Children.
14. Medical Clinics (four Professors.)
15. Surgical do. (three Professors.)
16. Midwifery Clinics.

Besides the twenty-three Professors, there were attached to the Faculty thirty-six *agregés*, to assist the Professors in the examination of candidates, and to lecture for them in case of absence from illness or other causes. An *agregé* was required to be a Doctor of Medicine or Surgery, and to have attained the age of twenty-five years. As at present arranged, twelve *agregés* go upon *stage*, twelve pass from that to *exercise*, and twelve become free (*libres.*) The number of free *agregés* (agregés libres) is unlimited.* The Professors of the Faculty are,

* Dans la suite les renouvellements continueront à s'effectuer tous les trois ans, de maniere qu'à chacun d'eux, douze agregés entrent en stage, douze passent du stage en exercise, et douze deviennent agregés libres.—*V. ord. du Roi 2d Feb.* 1823.

in case of vacancies, nominated by the Grand Master, out of three candidates proposed by the Assembly of the Faculty and three by the Academic Council, from the *agregés*, not only of the Faculty of Paris, but also of the other Medical Faculties of France. The *agregés* are not chosen upon presentation, but after a *concours*, the form of which is regulated by the Council of the University. The judges at this *concours* are named by the Grand Master, and must not be fewer than seven, besides the President. Five of them must belong to the Faculty, the others are not necessarily so. The aspirants, three months before the period fixed for the trial, must inscribe their names and shew their certificates. This *concours* is divided into three parts, one for Medicine, one for Surgery, and a third for the Accessory Sciences. Each of these is divided into three species of exercise, namely, a written composition, an oral lesson, and a thesis. The different subjects are distributed by lot, and a given time is allowed for the composition.

The Faculty has the following office-bearers :

a Librarian, a Conservator of the Museum, and a Chief of Anatomical Operations. It has also the following inferior officers, who receive only the name of *employés*. These are the *Preparateurs and Aides* of Chemistry and Pharmacy, *Chefs de Clinique*, a head Gardener for the Botanical Garden, *Prosecteurs et Aides d'Anatomie*.

At present no stranger can follow the lectures of the Faculty of Medicine without having a ticket of admission signed by the Dean, who is, at the same time, charged with very important powers, and may, in case of any disturbance, of his own authority, suspend a lecturer, provided he give information of what he has done, together with reasons for so doing, to the Rector, within the space of twenty-four hours.

The Faculties of Sciences, which are situated at Paris, Strasbourg, Caen, Toulouse, Montpellier, Dijon, and Grenoble, in general consist of four courses, which are at times subdivided: these are,

Differential and Integral Calculus,
Mechanics and Astronomy.

Physical, Theoretical and Practical Chemistry.
Different Branches of Natural History.

In the capital the Faculty of Sciences is on a different footing; it is composed of two sections, mathematical and physical: the former consisting of three courses,

Differential and Integral Calculus,
Mechanics,
Astronomy;

The latter of four courses,

Chemistry,
Mineralogy and Geology,
Botany and Vegetable Physiology,
Zoology and Physiology.

There is in addition a course of general and experimental physics, common to the two sections.

The courses of the Faculties of Sciences are of nine months' duration, and the lectures are delivered three times a week. To obtain the diploma of Bachelor of Sciences, the aspirant must possess that of Bachelor of Letters, and undergo certain examinations, which vary in

their nature, according as he wishes to devote himself to the natural or mathematical sciences. In the former case he is examined upon Mathematics, Natural Philosophy, Chemistry, Zoology, Botany, and Mineralogy; in the other, upon Arithmetic, Geometry, Rectilineal Trigonometry, and Algebra, with its application to Geometry. To become Licentiate of the Faculties of Sciences, he must be a Bachelor, and have followed at least two courses, (in Paris three courses) and to become Doctor, he must defend two theses, the subjects of which are regulated according as he studies the natural or mathematical sciences.

The fees in the Faculties of Sciences are,

Examination for Bachelor,	24 frs.	L.0	19 2
Right of Diploma for do.	36	L.1	9 0
Four Inscriptions for Licentiate,	12	L.0	9 7
Right of Examination for do.	24	L.0	19 2
Do. of Diploma for do.	36	L.1	9 0
Right of Examination for Doctor,	48	L.1	18 6
Do. of Diploma for do.	72	L.2	17 6

By the decree of the 17th March, 1808, there was established in each academy, a Faculty of

Letters; but this decree has not yet been fully put into execution. In those academies, however, in which Faculties of Letters have not been actually organized, a commission is formed to examine such persons as aspire to the *Baccalaureat* of Letters.* To obtain the title of Bachelor, proof must be given of having attended, at least for one year, a course of philosophy in a college, in a Faculty of Letters, or in a regularly-established school. From this rule are excepted young men who have been brought up in their fathers', uncles', or brothers' houses. The examinations, which, since 1823, have been in Latin, are upon the Greek and Latin authors, Rhetoric, History, Geography, Philoso-

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* Dans les Academies qui n'ont point de Faculté de lettres, une commission, etablie au chef-lieu, est chargée d'examiner les aspirans au grade de Bachelier ès-lettres. Cette commission se compose du proviseur, du censeur, et d'un ou de deux professeurs, pris parmi les professeurs de philosophie, de rhétorique, ou autres qui auraient le titre de Docteurs ès Lettres. A chacune desdites Facultés et commissions est adjoint, pour les examens du baccalaureat, un des Professeurs de Mathematiques ou de Sciences Physiques du College Royal, qui ait le grade de Docteur ès-sciences.—*Ordonnances du* 31 *Oct.* 1816, *et* 18 *Oct.* 1821.

phy, and the Elements of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy.

In the capital the course delivered by the Professors of the Faculty of Letters are nine,

1. Philosophy,
2. History of Philosophy,
3. Greek Literature,
4. Latin Eloquence,
5. Latin Poetry,
6. French Eloquence,
7. French Poetry,
8. Ancient and Modern History,
9. Ancient and Modern Geography.

The fees are the same as in the Faculty of Sciences.

Colleges form the second order of schools in the system of public instruction in France. In them are taught the Elements of Letters, History, Philosophy, and the Mathematical and Physical Sciences. They are divided into three classes, bearing the names of Royal, Communal, and Private Colleges. In the circle of each court of appeal, or, in other words, of each academy, there is established, at least, one Royal College, and in some,

several. The Council of Administration in each is composed of the following office-bearers :—

Provisor (*Proviseur*)
Censor,
Almoner,
House-Governor, (*œconome*)
Professors,
Assistants, (*agregés*)
Directors of Study, (*maitres d'etudes.*)

The Provisor is the head of the administration, to whom all the others are subject: his duties are multifarious and important. What the Rector is in an academy, he is in a college; he watches over its interests, its internal economy, the cleanliness and health of its inmates, and their regularity and propriety of behaviour. He holds meetings, on the first Monday of every month, to take into consideration every circumstance relating to the welfare and interests of the college. The censor bears the complete charge of all that concerns the education of the scholars, and it is his duty to give up regular reports to the Provisor. All duties con-

nected with their religious instruction, as well as all the public and daily offices of religion, devolve upon the Almoner, who resides constantly in the college. The Professors and assistants are elected, the former on presentation, the latter by *concours*. The *maitres d'etudes* superintend the scholars during the time they are not attending the Professors. They take their meals along with them, attend them in their excursions, and keep an eye over their private behaviour.

The young men received into the Royal Colleges are divided into four classes,

1. Gratis Scholars, (*elevès boursiers*) nominated by the King.
2. Gratis Scholars nominated by the Municipality.
3. Paying Boarders.
4. Scholars who merely attend the Lectures, but do not board in the College.

To be entitled to admission into a Royal College, the age of eight years is requisite; a certificate of having been vaccinated, or having had the small-pox; being able to read and write, and a certificate of assiduity and good

conduct from the superiors of the schools formerly attended.

The great importance of a good system of education at the age when young men are received into the Royal Colleges, and the influence it possesses over the success of their future progress, at a more advanced age, in the studies of the higher Faculties, render a somewhat fuller detail of the constitution of these colleges both necessary and interesting. At a period of life, when the boy is gradually passing into manhood, a more than usual attention must be paid to the direction of the mind. The character then is often stamped, and habits are acquired which frequently go far in destroying the advantages which were to have been expected from a well-conducted early education. The truth of this is too often observed; and the general fault in most systems of education is, that there exists an evident deficiency, or hiatus, between the primary and elementary instruction and the high branches of science connected with the prosecution of the learned professions, and which, of course, cannot be attend-

ed till a much more advanced age. Several years, in consequence, elapse in a state too often of idleness, at least of indifference to science; and it not unfrequently happens, that, at his recommencement of study in the Faculties, the student does not possess that extent of knowledge which he possessed previously when quitting the studies of his younger years. The general constitution and organization therefore of the Royal Colleges of France, which apply equally to the other orders of colleges distributed through that country, will in the present place not be uninteresting. Such an account will enable us to form a better judgment how far these colleges serve the purpose of removing the objections which have just been advanced against other systems of instruction, and, at the same time, will give some idea of the nature of preliminary study in the University of France.*

* Having already, in former parts of this work, detailed the courses of study to be followed in the Universities of Padua and Pavia, it may not be uninteresting, in this

The great object of the Royal Colleges is the preparation of young men to follow those

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place, to present some idea of the preliminary education established by the Imperial Government in the Lombardo-Venetian dominions. To obtain the highest academic honours, as has been in another place observed, it is necessary to go through the biennial philosophical curriculum (*studio biennale filosofico*) ; it is likewise necessary, before entering upon this biennial course, to complete a regular course of study in the *gymnasia* and elementary schools. In taking the minor degrees of academic honours, the philosophical course is not imperative, but the gymnasial course is. The nature and extent of the former of these having been formerly described, it will be proper to detail the nature of the latter, and, in a few words, the leading features and distribution of the elementary schools of instruction in general.

By imperial edict, elementary schools are divided into three orders, minor elementary schools, superior elementary schools, and technical elementary schools. Of these the first are destined to impart the rudiments of necessary instruction to every class of children ; the second are destined more particularly for the instruction of those who wish to apply themselves to the cultivation of the arts and sciences ; the technical schools (*scuole tecniche*) are frequented by such as are destined to enter into trade and commerce.

The following is the arrangement of study in these schools :—

1. In the Minor Elementary Schools:

A. The Principles of the Catholic Religion.

studies in the different Faculties, which are to entitle them to claim the highest honours con-

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B. Reading.
C. Writing.
D. Arithmetic.
E. Knowledge of the Value, &c. of Money, Weights, and Measures,
F. First Precepts for expressing Ideas in Writing.

2. The Superior Elementary Schools are divided into four classes. In the three inferior of these are taught,
A. The Principles of the Catholic Religion; Sacred History; Explanations of the Evangelists.
B. Calligraphy.
C. Orthography.
D. Italian Grammar.
E. Principles of Composition.
F. Reading and Writing Latin to Dictation.

In the fourth order of these Schools there are two courses and in addition are taught,
A. Architecture.
B. Geometry.
C. Mechanics.
D. Stereometry.
E. Design.
F. Geography.
G. Natural History.
H. Natural Philosophy.

3. In the Technical Schools, (besides the continuation of the subjects taught in the Superior Elementary Schools), are taught in addition,

ferred by these Faculties: these studies, therefore, are not confined to the mere acquisition of

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A. History.
B. Science of Commerce.
C. Art of keeping Books of Accounts.
D. Mathematics.
E. History of the Arts.
F. Chemistry.
G. German Language.
H. French Language.
I. English Language.

Government holds jurisdiction over these schools, assisted in affairs touching religion by the bishops. There are, besides, for each government, (*per ogni governo*) a head Inspector, Provincial Inspectors, Inspectors of Districts, and local Directors. These office-bearers have all salaries from government proportional to their rank and the duties they have to perform.

The next order of schools bear the higher denomination of Gymnasia. Their composition consists of a Prefect, (*Prefetto*) a Catechist, or Professor of Religion and Morality, two Professors of Humanity, four Professors of Grammar, and an *Inserviente*. To these sometimes, and particularly in the large towns, teachers of other branches of study are added, though they do not necessarily form an integrant part of the school.

In making a short recapitulation of what has been said, the adjoining tabular statement of the degrees conferred by the Universities of Austrian Italy, and of the preliminary education required before obtaining these degrees, may not be uninteresting:—

Latin and Greek, but embrace a wider range, including the various branches of the philosophical, mathematical, and physical sciences. A gradual chain of education is carried on, from the rudiments, it may be said, of French and Latin grammar, up to the study of philosophy, metaphysics, and the deeper branches of natural and moral science; so that the student, upon quitting the college, is in a state to enable him to take those academic honours which are necessary preliminaries to his entering upon the prosecution of the lettered professions. The following statement comprises, in a condensed

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Compiuti gli studii Ginnasiali.

- Studio pei Maestri de Chirurgia.
- Studio pei Farmacisti.
- Studio pei periti Agrimensori.
- Studio biennale filosofico.
  - Studio Theologico.
  - Studio politico-legale.
  - Studio pei Med. et Chir. Dottori.
  - Studio per gl'Ingegneri Architetti.

Regolamento ed Istruzioni per le Scuole Elementari.—Milano—dall' Imp. R. Stamp.

Prospetto degli studii dell' Imp. R. Universitá di Padova. Padova, 1823—24.

form, the nature, order, and distribution of the different branches of literature and science taught in these colleges. They are imperative on all the *elèves* who aspire to a degree in any of the Faculties.

The elementary part is under the charge of masters who do not possess the title or rank of Professors. It comprehends Sacred History, French and Latin Grammar, Geography, Arithmetic and Writing, and lasts for the space of two years; after which the scholars undergo a strict examination as to whether they be qualified to enter upon the study of the second division of collegiate instruction. This comprehends every branch of Latin, Greek, and French literature, Geography, Ancient and Modern History, Mythology, Roman and Greek Antiquities, and the elements of the natural sciences. For the teaching of these different subjects there are six Professors, thus named:

Professeur de Sixieme.
——— de Cinquieme.
——— de Quatrieme.
——— de Troisieme.

Professeur de Seconde.
——— de Rhetorique.

The distribution of the subjects taught is as follows:—

1mo,—Classe de Sixieme.

In the morning class the Professor explains either the *Selectæ e profanis*, or *de viris illustribus urbis Romæ*. The evening lessons are confined to the explanation of the fables of *Phædrus* compared with those of La Fontaine, and to the study of ancient geography compared with modern, as absolutely necessary to the proper understanding of the classical writers of antiquity. The subjects of theme, or exercise, relate to Mythology. In this class, as well as in the following, the lessons in writing and arithmetic are continued.

2do,—Classe de Cinquieme.

The Professor explains, in the morning lesson, extracts from *Justinus* and *Cornelius Nepos*. The evening lessons are confined to the explanation of the familiar letters of *Cicero*, to the elements of the Greek language, and, towards

the latter part of the year, to the explanation of the fables of *Æsop*. The subjects of theme relate to Greek and Roman antiquities.

3tio,—Classe de Quatrieme.

The Professor explains, in the morning lesson, extracts from *Quintus Curtius*, *Titus Livius*, *Commentaries of Cæsar*, the treatises *de Amicitia et de Senectute*, the dialogues of *Lucian*, and the *Cyropædia of Xenophon*. In the evening, extracts from the Latin poets, and particularly from the *Bucolics* and *Georgics* of *Virgil*, and the *Metamorphoses* of *Ovid*.

The scholars this year are exercised in the composition of Latin poetry; their themes, which are given on Tuesdays and Saturdays, are upon the elements of the natural sciences. The drawing lessons now commence, and are continued in all the following classes.

4to,—Classe de Troisieme.

In the morning, the Professor explains *Sallust* and *Tacitus*, and the Latin and Greek moralists. In the evening, the *Encid* and *Iliad*.

The exercises are the same as in the preceding class.

5to,—Classe de Seconde.

The subjects of the morning lessons are the *Orations of Cicero*, and extracts from the *Iliad*. In the evening, the *Encid* and *Iliad*. The scholars of this year are exercised upon the rudiments of rhetoric, and in the composition of narrative.

In addition to what have been already stated, there are several other branches of education, thus distributed throughout the preceding classes:

Profane History.	C. de 5*me*,	Ancient History.	
	—— 4*me*,	Roman History,	
	—— 3*me*,	History of the Middle Ages,	more particularly confined to France.
	—— 2*de*,	Modern History,	

These historical lessons are sometimes given by the ordinary Professors, sometimes by a special Professor of History: in the latter case he gives his lesson to the

Cl. de 5*me*, . . on Monday evening.

Cl. de 4*me*,	Wednesday.
—— 3*me*,	Friday.
—— 2*de*,	Saturday.

6to,—Classe de Rhetorique.

In the morning lesson, the Professor explains the *Conciones e veteribus historicis excerptæ*, extracts from the Orations of *Cicero* and *Demosthenes*. In the evening, *Conciones Poeticæ* and the Greek tragic writers. During the first month the Professor teaches the principles of eloquence and the rules of composition. The scholars are exercised alternately in Latin verse, French and Latin composition, and Latin and Greek translation.*

This class terminates that division of collegiate education which embraces the study of letters; the study of the sciences forms the next division, and occupies two years. The number of Professors is four; and Philosophy, Mathematics, and the Physical sciences are taught.

* In the capital each college has two Professors of Rhetoric.

The first year's course of study comprises,

First,
- Logic,
- Metaphysics,
- Morals, with the Rights of Nature and of Nations.

Second,
- Arithmetic,
- Geometry,
- Rectilineal Trigonometry,
- Algebra.

At the commencement of each mathematical lesson, a summary of the preceding one is given; at the same time the scholars are questioned upon what was then treated of, and their exercises are examined.

The philosophical lecture is delivered in Latin, and is divided into three parts; the first is a recapitulation of the former day's lesson, the second is the lesson of the day, and the third is employed in questioning and examining the scholars.

The second year is wholly consecrated to the prosecution of mathematical and physical science, and is thus occupied:

Morning,
- Statics,
- Elements of Algebra,
- Application of Algebra to Geometry.

Evening, { Physics, Chemistry, Elements of Physical Astronomy.

Between the class-hours the scholars are exercised in Drawing, or Descriptive Geometry.

In addition to these classes, a lecture is delivered every Thursday upon Natural History and Physical Science. During the first half-year, when the subject of lecture is Natural History, the scholars of the *Classes de Troisieme, de Seconde,* and *de Rhetorique,* are admitted; for the remainder of the year the scholars of the first year of Philosophy are admitted.

Such is the system of instruction adopted in the Royal Colleges of France; and it is so complete in its different parts, that the student, upon quitting the college, is already in a state to enter immediately upon those studies connected with the profession he proposes to follow.

Besides the occasional examinations made by the Inspectors-General in the colleges, by order of the Royal Council, there take place, annually, two fixed examinations, the one in the middle of May, by the Inspectors of the Academy,

assisted by the Provisor and Censor; the other about the middle of October, by the Rector, assisted by the Academic Council. On these occasions, according to the merits and proficiencies of the scholars, certain prizes are distributed; the distribution being determined by the composition of an essay, the subject of which is fixed by the Rector.

The Royal Colleges of the kingdom are divided into various classes, or *grades*, which differ from one another in the amount of board paid by the scholars, and in the value of the Professors' salaries.

The colleges of Paris and Versailles form the first class; the board and salaries in which are the highest, and are as follows:—

		Francs.			
Board,	Paris,	900	L.36	0	0
	Versailles,	750	L.30	0	0
Salaries,	Provisor,	5000	L.200	0	0
	Censor,	3500	L.140	0	0
	Almoner,	Do.	Do.		
	House-Director.	3000	L.120	0	0
	Professor of First Order,	Do.	Do.		
	Professor of Second Order,	2500	L.100	0	0

		Francs.			
Salaries,	Professor of Third Order,	2000	L.80	0	0
	Director of Study, .	1200	L.48	0	0

Second Class.—Royal Colleges of Rouen, Strasbourg, Lyon, Marseille, Bordeaux:

		Francs.			
Board,	. . . .	750	L.30	0	0
Salaries,	Provisor, . .	4000	L.160	0	0
	Censor, . .	2500	L.100	0	0
	Almoner, . .	Do.	Do.		
	House-Director, .	2000	L.80	0	0
	Prof. 1st Order, .	Do.	Do.		
	Do. 2d Do. .	1800	L.72	0	0
	Do. 3d Do. .	1500	L.60	0	0
	Director of Study, .	1000	L.40	0	0

Third Class.—Royal Colleges of Rheims, Caen, Amiens, Douai, Metz, Besançon, Dijon, Grenoble, Nimes, Montpellier, Toulouse, Orleans, Angers, Nantes, Rennes.

		Francs.			
Board,	. . . .	650	L.26	0	0
Salaries,	Provisor, . .	3500	L.140	0	0
	Censor, . .	2000	L.80	0	0
	Almoner, .	Do.	Do.		
	House-Director, .	1600	L.64	0	0
	Prof. 1st Order, . . .	1800	L.72	0	0
	Do. 2d Do. .	1500	L.60	0	0
	Do. 3d Do. .	1200	L.48	0	0
	Director of Studies, .	800	L.32	0	0

Fourth Class.—Royal Colleges of Nanci, Avignon, Tournon, Rhodés, Cahors, Pau, Poitiers, Bourges, Pontivy, Limoges, Clermont, Moulins:

		Francs.		
Board,		600	L.24	0 0
Salaries,	Provisor,	3000	L.120	0 0
	Censor,	1500	L.60	0 0
	Almoner,	Do.	Do.	
	House Director,	1400	L.56	0 0
	Prof. 1st Order,	1500	L.60	0 0
	Do. 2d Do.	1200	L.48	0 0
	Do. 3d Do.	1000	L.40	0 0
	Director of Studies,	700	L.28	0 0

Besides the fixed board, those scholars who pay for their places pay also, for defraying the expense of books and other necessaries connected with study, an additional sum of 100 francs (L.4) in Paris, and of 50 francs (L.2) in the other colleges of the kingdom.

In each royal college there are 41 royal bursaries, which are distributed as follows:—

Scholars with entire Bursaries, 20.——20 Bursaries.
Do. with 3/4 Do. 12.—— 9 Do.
Do. with 1/2 Do. 24.——12 Do.

Scholars, 56. 41 Bursaries.

Those who have full bursaries are received altogether gratis; the others must make up the price of board before being admitted.

The value of royal bursaries differs in the different classes of royal colleges:—

	Francs.	
In Paris and Versailles,	750	L.30 0 0
In the 2d Class of Colleges,	625	L.25 0 0
In the 3d Do.	550	L.22 0 0
In the 4th Do.	500	L.20 0 0

The fixed expenses of the royal colleges, are defrayed out of the budget. In Paris the sum allowed varies according as the colleges take boarders or not; if they do, it is

	31,700 fr.	L.1268 0 0
At Versailles it is	35,300	L.1412 0 0
In the 2d Class of Colleges,	25,300	L.1012 0 0
In the 3d Do.	22,000	L.880 0 0
In the 4th Do.	18,600	L.744 0 0

The annual expenses of royal colleges defrayed by the treasury amount, for fixed expenses, to

	933,600 fr.	L.37,344 0 0
Royal Bursaries,	830,250	L.33,210 0 0
Additional Expenses,	36,150	L.1446 0 0
Francs,	1,800,000	L.72,000 0 0

The second order of colleges, or those named *communal*, are organized on the same footing as the royal, but are entirely maintained at the expense of the town to which they belong. The expenditure is regulated by a council, composed of the mayor as president; of a member of the academic council, delegated by the Rector; of two members of the council of the department or *arrondissement*, and of two members of the municipal council, named by the Prefect. The superior of a communal college is styled *Principal*, and the office-bearers *Regents*. The *communal* colleges are distributed, in different proportions, in the circles of the 26 academies, and are in all 322 in number. Each town furnishes a certain sum of money to the maintenance of its own college, and some pay a certain number of places, which are given *gratis* to the children of citizens who may merit the distinction. The whole sum furnished by the towns, in which communal colleges are established, amounts annually to 1,732,099 francs, equivalent to about L.69,304 sterling. The number of office-bearers in these colleges

amounts to 1700, whose salaries average 1040 francs (L.41, 12s.)

The third order of colleges are those named private; and any private establishment, after it has existed for ten consecutive years under the jurisdiction of the University, and in which all the branches of knowledge generally taught in the colleges have for five years been attended to, has a right to demand the title of College (*de plein exercise.*) Upon the demand being made, an inspector is charged with the examination of the establishment, on whose report the council of the University determine if it should be granted or not. With regard to their internal organization, these colleges, though on a smaller scale, are very much on the same footing as the preceding.

What are named Institutions and Boarding-houses (*Institutions et Pensions*) form the third order of schools in the system of public instruction. In the former may be taught, with permission of the Royal Council, all those branches of knowledge which are afterwards taught more fully in the colleges. In the latter are

taught only grammar, with the elements of arithmetic and geometry. To be the head of a *Pension* the title of Bachelor of Letters is necessary; to be the head of an *Institution* also that of Sciences: the former pays for his diploma—

At Paris, . .	300 francs,	L.12 0 0
In the Departments, .	200	L.8 0 0

The latter pays—

At Paris, . .	600	L.24 0 0
In the Departments, .	400	L.16 0 0

The last branch of the public instruction to be considered is a most important one; it is the primary or elementary instruction, which constitutes the ground-work of all the higher branches.

The elementary schools of France are placed under the superintendence of committees, one of which is established in each canton of the kingdom, and watches over the progress of instruction in that canton. The number of members composing each committee varies according to the population and extent of the

district. The *ex officio* members are the *curè*, the justice of peace, and the principal of the college, if there be one in the canton; the other members are chosen by the Rector upon the approbation of the Prefect. Primary schools may be founded by communities, by charitable associations, by licensed teachers, or by private munificence; but, at the same time, none can be founded but under certain conditions, which must be observed before they receive the countenance of the law. The teachers also have certain forms to go through, and certain examinations to undergo, before receiving the right of teaching. They are required to present a certificate of good conduct, signed by the clergyman or mayor, to pass an examination before an inspector of academy, or some other functionary, and then, according to their appearance and merits, they receive their patents of capacity. These patents are of three kinds or degrees, and are granted in reference to the extent of instruction given in each school. The laws and regulations relative to the organization and management of the primary schools

are distinct and well defined, and the utmost attention is paid to the morals and welfare of the children attending them.

Since the commotions of the kingdom have ceased, and France, allowed to repose after a series of events so complicated and so important, has been enabled to look into her internal situation, and, from a long state of peace, found time to turn her attention to her more immediate and social interests; the most enlightened philanthropy has been spreading among all ranks. From that excellent Prince the Dauphin, whose name is to be found at the head of so many charitable institutions, down to the humblest citizen, a liberal spirit has been fostered, which is powerfully contributing to the moral improvement of the people. The burden of education for the inferior classes is no longer left wholly upon the shoulders of government; on the contrary, the greater number of public schools are now supported by charitable associations and private benevolence. The language of charity and philanthropy is now to be everywhere heard, and what was formerly but the

vain wish of some humane persons, is acknowledged by all as a practical and imperative duty. The instruction of the great body of the people is considered as a right which they are entitled to; and the work is advancing with a rapidity and success which will ensure at once the happiness of those whose intellectual improvement is immediately consulted and the welfare of the country at large.

The following extract from a speech of one of the most illustrious noblemen in France does him infinite honour, and must give pleasure to every well-wisher of humanity :—

" To me it appears that in this world there " are advantages which every individual, rich " or poor, has a right to enjoy, and in which he " has a right to participate as a member of the " great society of mankind; these advantages " are the employment of his rational qualities, " and the knowledge of religion, of morality, " and of justice. But without instruction, " what an imperfect notion of these advantages " can be entertained, if, indeed, it can exist at " all. A state of ignorance therefore is a vio-

"lation of the rights of humanity. It has been "often said, that to give bread to those that "want is a duty incumbent upon all govern- "ments; but ought the wants of the mind to "be more neglected than the wants of the "body? The discovery is not long of being "made, that a school of instruction is a more "certain and permanent means of producing "plenty than a *depot de mendicité*; without in- "struction, a man, whether born in the palace "or the cottage, is but a physical and material "being; it is education that makes him a ra- "tional and sensible being."*

These are sentiments to which the heart of every one must respond. Ignorance is an evil which soon leads to degradation, to a degradation of all those feelings and sentiments that require only to be called into action to bring forth the very best fruits. Many an unfortunate person is doomed to pass his life unknown

* Discours de M. le Duc de La Rochefoucauld, à l'assemblée generale de la Societé pour l'instruction elementaire tenue le 28 Avril 1819.

and unseen, from being unable to obtain those precious advantages which a good education, moral and religious, would have afforded him.

The formation of a code of laws to deter from evil those whose habits or temper might lead them to the commission of it, is and has always been the first and most important object of attention with an enlightened government; but is the formation of a code of laws, which act by inspiring terror, the only means of preventing vice? Fear will undoubtedly go far in doing this; but education will operate more radically and efficiently, and no one will deny that it will act in a more desirable manner. It will teach mankind to know good from evil, to mark the distinction between virtue and vice, and to judge of the benefit that must ensue from adhering to the one, and of the consequences that, sooner or later, must inevitably follow the practice of the other. Let the eye be cast over the various nations of the globe, and it will soon perceive the truth of the maxim, that ignorance is the source of misery and guilt. Wherever the light of instruction has

shone, idleness and vice have disappeared, the excesses of passion, unbridled crime, and open defiance of all justice, have given place to obedience to the laws of society; and the human mind has yielded to an influence which has had the effect of bringing forth qualities that were not wanting, but that merely lay dormant. How many persons may say with the poor prisoner—"Had I been taught to read and write, I should not have suffered this confinement!" The most illustrious philosophers, the most enlightened statesmen of all nations, whose attention has been turned to the good of their fellow-men, have always regarded the instruction of the people as the only true means of securing the happiness of individuals and the prosperity of a country. It is a glorious epoch for humanity, when Princes shew an example for extending the light of knowledge among their subjects. This impulse has been given, and though there be countries that still groan under a despotism more intolerable than that of the body, the despotism of the soul, yet these must ere long regain their rights and vindicate their pri-

vileges. While one monarch publishes an edict obliging his subjects to send their children to school, to obtain an education which is to render them faithful subjects and good men, and brands those who do not obey this edict with the mark of opprobrium and shame, it will hardly be believed, that another monarch, in a land where the bounty of nature, in the magnificence of her works, must be an ever-existing reproach to him, has issued an edict, in which it is forbidden to all, who do not possess a certain annual income, to learn the most ordinary branches of instruction.*

This, however, has lately occurred, and while the consequences are seen, in the moral and mental degradation of a fine people, it must be a matter of exultation to the philanthropist,

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* The two monarchs here alluded to are the Kings of Prussia and Sardinia. The former, by a late edict, calls upon all his subjects to send their children to school at a certain age, under penalties to the parents; the latter, by an edict of nearly the same date, forbids all persons, who do not possess a certain annual income, from attending the literary institutions of his kingdom.

that those nations which stand at the summit of earthly power have spurned at doctrines so degrading to humanity, and so destructive to the best interests of society.

France, with a population of thirty millions of souls, affords an extensive field for the operations of an enlightened government; but, at the same time, were the elementary instruction entirely in the hands of the government, and wholly dependent on it, this great population would render it a matter of infinite difficulty, nay of impossibility, to create a system that would administer sufficiently or adequately to the moral wants of the great body of the people. But the French government has not attempted this. It has adopted a plan which, while it prevents abuse, does not interfere with the endeavours of individuals to promote the great object of an enlightened benevolence. The Primary Schools, in each district of the kingdom, are placed under the charge of a committee, the nature of which has been already described. These committees again are subject to the jurisdiction of the University, and, as

much of the benefit to be derived from the progress of instruction must depend upon the choice of the members composing them, several *ordonnances* have been published, by superior authority, setting forth the extent of the duties expected from them, and advising "that the members should be enlightened men, disposed to examine, with impartiality and without bias, all projects of amelioration, and all new methods of education, before rejecting them."

The Primary Schools of France may be divided in different ways, according to the point of view in which they are considered. They may be divided into schools of the first, second, or third order, according to the degree of extension or perfection to which instruction is carried; they may be divided into those kept by individuals and those kept by associations, and particularly by the brotherhood of charity; they may also be divided according to the system of teaching adopted in them, and, lastly, into gratis and paying schools.

In the following table is given a statement of the numbers of the University of France,

including all the Primary Schools, for the year 1815, and certainly, considering the extent of the kingdom, it does not give a very high idea of the condition in which the public instruction then was :—

Academies,	26	Students of Law,	2113
Faculties of Theology,	7	Do. of Medicine,	4216
Do. of Law,	9	In Royal Colleges,	9000
Do. of Medicine,	3	Other Colleges,	28,000
Do. of Sciences,	10	Ecclesiastical Schools,	5233
Do. of Letters,	23	In *pensions*,	39,623
Royal Colleges,	36	In Pr. Schools,	737,369
Colleges,	368		
Secondary Ecclesiastical Schools,	41	Total of Scholars,	825,554*
Institutions and *pensions*,	1255		
Primary Schools,	22,348		
Total of Establishments,	24,126		

* Coup d'œil general sur l'education, et l'instruction publiques en France, &c. par M. Basset, *Censeur des etudes au Collegè Royal de Charlemagne.*

But since this period a rapid increase in the number of schools and scholars has taken place. In 1815 France was but awakening from a state of things that did not permit instruction to extend its full influence. A heavy conscription had drained off the young men almost before they had time to be educated; and a complete military system of government was not likely to give great encouragement to societies, whose sole object was the promotion of knowledge. From a rapid succession of great and wonderful events, the minds of men had been kept in a state of ferment that was never allowed to subside, till at last, a general peace having arrived, the necessity and advantages of education became more apparent from the surplus of inhabitants, who were thrown upon their country by the want of military employment. Already, in the year 1820, the progress of instruction was manifest. It has been seen that in 1815 the number of scholars in the Primary Schools was 737,369; in 1820 it amounted to 1,070,500, being an increase of 333,131 in the short space of six years.

There is little fear of public education not improving, when the head of public instruction is heard to pronounce such words as these:— "There is an instruction necessary to all men; "it consists of the elements of religion and mo- "rality, of the arts of reading, writing, and "arithmetic. The present state of existence is "one that can neither be happy or well regu- "lated, except when this knowledge is possessed "by man." It is to be hoped that future Grand Masters may think and speak in the same spirit, and then there will be little to dread.

By documents published in 1819, the population of France was averaged at 29,217,465, and that portion of it attending schools, at 1,130,000, being pretty nearly in the ratio of one to twenty-five. Since then, however, up to the present day, the proportion has been gradually increasing, and may now be stated as very considerably higher.

A very great number of the schools for elementary instruction in France have been and still are under the direction and charge of the brotherhood and sisterhood of charity,—an asso-

ciation that demands from all the warmest admiration for the devotedness and usefulness of its members in advancing the work of benevolence; but the very nature of its institutions prevented these schools from being distributed equally over the country, and consequently rendered them less generally useful than could have been wished.

It almost always happened that they were found abundantly in towns, but very seldom in villages, hamlets, and retired parts of the country, where charity-schools were most needed. This arose very much, as already said, from the nature of the institutions themselves; but it was also, in a great measure, owing to the expense of maintaining them. The scholars, no doubt, were admitted gratis; but their ordinary current expenses came upon the municipal revenues, and as these expenses were often considerable, an expenditure was unavoidably incurred, which a town of some size alone could afford. It has been found, however, that the system of mutual instruction of late years introduced into France, and which has been mak-

ing such rapid progress, does not possess these disadvantages, or does so at least in a very slight degree. Schools upon this principle, it is said, may be established anywhere: they require a very trifling expense, and have an additional superiority over the charity-schools, in developing more readily the moral qualities of the mind, and communicating with more ease and rapidity the elements of knowledge to all classes and all ages.* There is no doubt that a great share of the good done of late years, in the edu-

* The system of Mutual Instruction here spoken of is but a modification of that so well known in this country as the system of Bell and Lancaster. It is, however, in reality, perhaps of earlier date than these gentlemen; for, according to French authority, it appears to have been introduced into the Hospice of *La Pitié* by M. Herbault, as early as 1747, and to have been afterwards adopted by some other Frenchmen in various charitable establishments. The progress of this system in England at first was very rapid, but after reaching a certain length it became very stationary. Still, though not adopted to the full extent proposed by its authors, it has produced a considerable change in the mode of teaching. In France its advantages seem to be appreciated, and perhaps the principal of these advantages may be the facility with which it can be applied, and the small expense it entails upon the community.

cation of the poor, has arisen from the introduction of the system of mutual instruction. It is a system that has advanced with the most rapid progress in every department of France where it has gained ground, though in some it has done so to a greater extent than in others. The society of elementary instruction, whose labours in establishing a system of primary education throughout the kingdom have been so great and so successful, has always laid much stress on the advantages and superiority of this method, and, considering all the society has done for the benefit of mankind, it is certainly entitled to the warmest praise of the most inveterate enemies of mutual instruction, as having at last introduced what, since the period of the Revolution, numerous laws had attempted, but, from insufficiency and defect of method, without success, a general system, namely, of elementary instruction for the poorer classes of society.*

* M. Appert, in speaking of the schools of the Brotherhood of Charity, makes the following remarks upon their

While, for a length of time, other nations possessed a population well and liberally instructed, France, so much before them in many other respects, remained in this one point far behind. The great bulk of her population was plunged in ignorance; the impulse, however, when given, was not long of being universally felt, and the reproach that was once justly made

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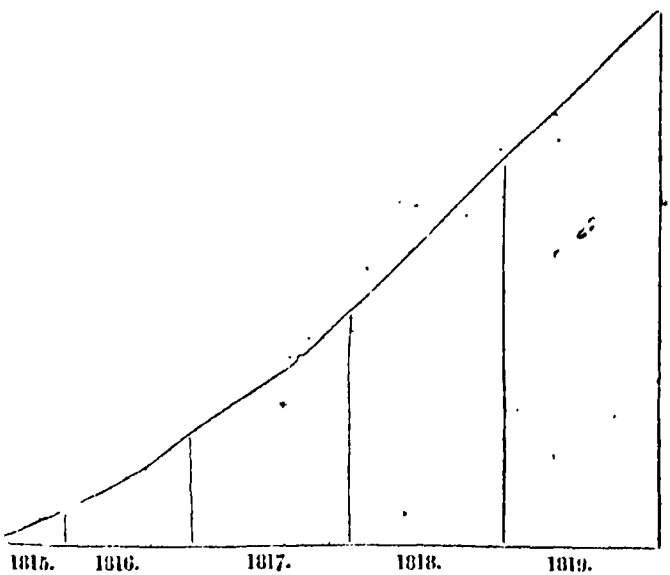
disadvantages, as compared with the system of Mutual Instruction:—" Elles (the schools of charity,) procurent au peuple l'instruction que nous desirons généraliser en France; mais l'inconvenient de ce système est de coûter beaucoup plus cher, et d'instruire trois fois moins vite que l'enseignement mutuel; et d'ailleurs les frères ne marchent jamais que trois à trois, la plupart des petites villes ou des villages seraient privés d'instruction, s'ils devaient seuls être chargés de l'enseignement primaire. Cependant toutes les communes paient leur part des impôts; les chefs-lieux des dèpartements reçoivent déjà assez d'avantages particuliers, pour ne pas leur accorder exclusivement ceux de l'éducation.

La methode d'enseignement mutuel au contraire peut s'appliquer partout; les frais sont à la portée de toutes les communes. Les progrès sont plus rapides; les parents sont donc moins long-temps privés des travaux auxquels leur enfants se livrent dès leur jeune âge.

Journal des Prisons, Hospices, &c. par M. Appert, No 8, p. 329.

against her no longer exists. The following figure, copied from a pamphlet, published by one of the Secretaries of the Society, shews the rapid increase of schools of mutual instruction from 1815 to 1819 inclusive:



But the blessings of education are not confined to children alone. Those who had grown up to manhood in ignorance are enabled, by a system of this nature, to secure the advantages of an education neglected in their youth. Into

the armies of France the system of mutual instruction has been introduced by M. Appert, and the benefits that have arisen from it are visible. Many regiments now possess a school founded upon this principle; and many officers of high rank and distinguished abilities are using their utmost endeavours to extend their numbers, and have formed a sort of society solely with this view. Most of the young men now in service had been brought up at a period when education in France was held as but of secondary importance, and had indeed been called to arms whilst yet children. But many are making up at present for what had formerly been despised or overlooked. The want of instruction may not be felt during the bustle and thoughtlessness of a military life; but when disabled by disease, or retired from service, then it is that all the advantages of an early education will be felt, and the curse of ignorance will be experienced when it is too late to remove it.

If the advocates, however, of mutual instruction be numerous, its opponents are not less

powerful; and it has been said of late that the Minister of the Interior has shewn himself decidedly hostile to the system. The clergy, too, have strenuously opposed its progress, and have gone so far, in some cases, as by their influence to abolish several schools in which the education was conducted upon this principle. An opposition of this kind, if the system be a good one, will not, it is probable, do much harm. It may be checked for a time, but its superiority, if it be superior, will soon appear; in which case, it is likely, this opposition will rather prove beneficial than otherwise to its extension.

In the capital, the Primary Schools, generally speaking, may be divided into schools of charity and schools of mutual instruction. The former of these give education to about 7000 children of both sexes, who are taught reading, writing, and arithmetic, the girls also sewing. The boys are under the direction of the Brotherhood of Christian Doctrine, the girls under that of the Sisterhood of Charity. These schools are distributed pretty equally throughout the

twelve arrondissements; and to maintain them, it is calculated that an expense of 12 or 15 francs for each individual is necessary. Besides these schools, there are established in each *Mairie*, two primary schools, one for boys, the other for girls, kept up at the expense of the city of Paris, the teachers of which receive a salary of 1200 francs (L.48.) per annum, and an additional sum of 240 francs for the purchase of prizes.

The schools of mutual instruction in the capital are also pretty numerous, and give instruction to a considerable number of children. They are divided into two classes, the one gratuitous, the other where a small sum of money is paid. In most cases these schools are founded by private individuals, or by the society of elementary instruction.

Besides the schools just mentioned, there exist several founded by private individuals, in which productive industry is conjoined with elementary education.

In the foregoing pages as full an account as space would admit has been given of the com-

position and constitution of the University of France; it may be worth while, before quitting the subject altogether, to give a tabular summary of its respective branches :*—

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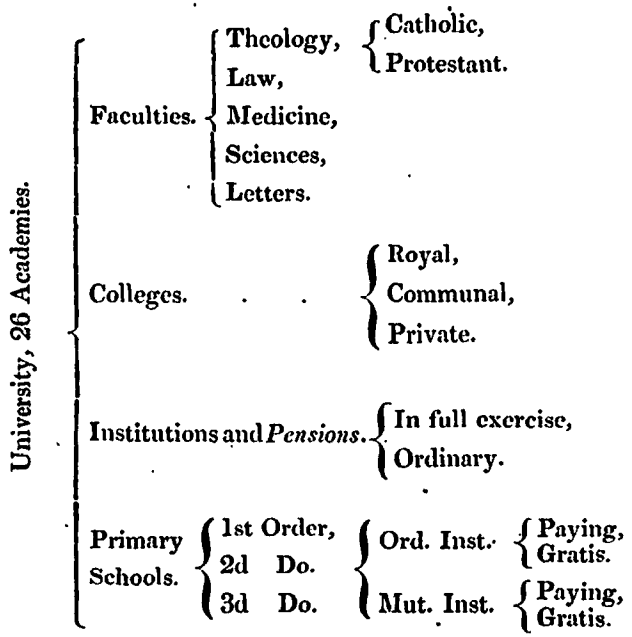
* In the foregoing short account of the present state of the Royal University of France, it will be seen, that every branch of the general education of that country comes under the jurisdiction of the *Supreme Council of Public Instruction*, and that the Royal University comprehends every establishment where science and literature are taught.

To prevent any confusion or mistake, however, upon this point, and for the benefit of such persons as are not well acquainted with the present literary institutions of France, it may be proper to add, that there are a few establishments which do not come under the jurisdiction of the University, but are entirely independent of it. These are generally named *Special Schools*, and in most cases are connected with the public service. The principal of them are the

Jardin du Roi,
Ecole Royale et Speciale des beaux Arts,
Ecole R. Spec. et grat. de Dessin,
Ecoles Royales Veterinaires d'Alfort et de Lyon,
College Royal de France,
Ecole Royale Polytechnique,
Ecoles Royales des Arts et Metièrs de Paris, de Chalons sur Marne, et d'Angers,
Ecole Royale des Mines,



In a nearly similar form, the following is a *resumé* of the state of the Academy of Paris :—

Ecole Royale des Ponts et Chaussées,
Ecoles Royales Militaires, de Saint Cyr, de la Flèche, &c. Besides several other schools of inferior note.

In a future work it is proposed to give a detailed account of these different establishments.

Academy sits in the Sorbonne.

- Faculties.
  - Theology, Sorbonne.
  - Law, School of Law.—*Place Ste Genevieve.*
  - Medicine, School of Med.—*Rue de l'Ecole de Medecine.*
  - Sciences —Sorbonne.
  - Letters.—Sorbonne.
- Colleges.
  - Royal,
  - Communal,
  - Private.
  - Coll. Louis le Grand.—123 *R. St Jaques.*
  - —— Henri IV.
  - —— St Louis.—*Rue de la Harpe.*
  - —— Bourbon.—*R. Neuve Ste Croix.*
  - Charlemagne.—*Rue St Antoine.*
- Institutions and *Pensions.*
  - Distributed in a nearly equal proportion throughout the 12 arrondissements.
- Primary Schools.
  - Supported by the city.
  - ——— by charitable association.
  - ——— by private beneficence.

THE END.

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